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ABSTRACT

This handbook is intended to facilitate the teaching, learning, and assessment of college creditable interpersonal competence acquired or enhanced by experiential learning situations. Experiential learning may be a result of prior experience, such as community affairs and work experience, or may be sponsored by the college. The concept of interpersonal competence is discussed in detail, and a model representing interpersonal, communication, and management skills is presented. Procedures are suggested for identifying and categorizing interpersonal skills, appropriately stating students' learning objectives, discovering and utilizing potential experiential learning situations, and assessing the learning of interpersonal skills for academic credit. A program of assessment strategies which emphasizes the need for multiple techniques is described. (Author/MV)

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TEACHING AND ASSESSING INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE— A CAEL HANDBOOK

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TEACHING AND ASSESSING INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE — A CAEL HANDBOOK

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Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning

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FOREWORD

This *Handbook* is one of several major CAEL assessment reports based upon CAEL Working Papers produced in 1975. CAEL followed an unusual developmental plan in validating its initial work and preparing these reports. In order to insure that its developmental work was fully reviewed and tried out prior to final publication, the CAEL Working Papers were used experimentally in approximately 80 CAEL institutions during 1975-76. In a formal review procedure users provided critique and suggestions that the authors used in preparing this revision. Validation of these current materials also included a series of field studies that addressed important issues concerning reliability, validity, and the value of assessment to the student. Those validation studies are reported in *The CAEL Validation Report,* 1976; aspects of the findings especially pertinent to content are referred to in Chapter VI of this *Handbook*. The authors' Preface summarizes the more important issues with which they tried to deal in their revisions and the major changes that distinguish this *Handbook* from the earlier version, originally published as Working Paper No. 4, "The Learning and Assessment of Interpersonal Skills: Guidelines for Administrators and Faculty."

Warren W. Willingham
CAEL Project Director

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PREFACE

When CAEL Working Paper No. 4, the predecessor to this *Handbook*, was being used experimentally in 1975-76, there were two principal issues:

- Were the extensive theoretical formulations necessary for all the potential users of this work?
- Was the material too slanted toward career uses of interpersonal competence and toward the higher level managerial skills, without sufficient reference to personal uses and participatory skills?

In responding to the feedback from scores of institutions and individual reviewers, we have made major changes in the analytical framework and in the organization. The analytical material has been divided into two sections with the basic concepts moved forward to Chapter II. This makes the book more flexible, as it leaves the more technical job-oriented theory in Chapter III independent of the remainder of the *Handbook*. Thus, those whose interests are primarily in the administrative aspects of program development, or in the technical aspects of assessment, can skip from Chapter II to Chapter IV without breaking the continuity of the presentation.

The concept of interpersonal literacy in Chapter II has been extended as a foundation applicable to the teaching of interpersonal competence for personal use as well as for career education. Therefore, for both career and personal purposes a better balance seems to be achieved between more passive participatory skills and the more active management skills. In strengthening this section, we made several additions reflecting the work of a research project at the University of Kentucky on the Krathwohl-Carkhuff paradox. We also incorporated the findings of an "awareness" study completed by an Interpersonal Relations Project in Minnesota.

The communication nucleus of the interpersonal competence model was completely revised, extending the utility of the theoretical framework by making it less exclusively role-oriented. New charts and figures were added to simplify and strengthen the visual presentation of the analytical framework.

Reflecting the new emphasis on participatory competences in Chapters II and III, Chapters VI through IX place more emphasis on the assessment of reciprocal skills. Chapters VI and VIII focus on processes and strategies for the development of assessment methods, with more emphasis on sponsored programs than was given in the earlier Working Paper. Responding to suggestions made by users and reviewers of the earlier draft, we have added Chapter VII for extended treatment of the interview as an assessment technique.

In addition to these responses to issues raised during the tryout period, we have also made numerous changes for the purpose of clarity and have included references to new publications and developments. We have extensively revised Appendix F (Procedures and Guidelines for Experiential Learning Through Individual Study) and have extended it to combine learning objectives, methods, and evaluation in one instrument that can be adapted for local use.

This *Handbook* is intended to help faculty members and administrators with four primary tasks:

1. *Incorporating the subject of interpersonal competence as a subject into the programs of postsecondary institutions.* Chapter I discusses the problems of offering academic recognition for this subject, and outlines some of the attitudinal and technical difficulties that must be resolved in order to establish a successful program for teaching and assessing interpersonal competences.
2. *Developing theoretical foundations for the teaching and assessing of interpersonal competence.* Chapter II offers a basic analytic framework for the definition of interpersonal literacy that is applicable for both personal and career uses of basic communicative skills. Chapter III is a more complete theoretical formulation in which we have adapted the occupational theories of Sidney Fine for this broader purpose.
3. *Administering programs of experiential learning.* Chapter IV explores the critical variables involved in selecting learning sites and maximizing student achievements. Chapter V is a checklist of all the procedures that are necessary to establish and administer a program in teaching and assessing interpersonal competence.
4. *Assessing experientially-acquired interpersonal competences.* Chapters VI, VII, VIII, and IX analyze the problems of assessment, explore various techniques, and describe an approach to assessment that can be adapted for local use.

This *Handbook* is designed to be used either alone or with a companion volume, *Learning and Assessing Interpersonal Competence – A CAEL Student Guide.* When used with the *Student Guide*, the *Handbook* gains in utility, because the student will have some of the background material on the nature of the communication process, the importance of interpersonal competence and ways in which it can be learned experientially, and preparation for the assessment process. The *Student Guide* includes a detailed do-it-yourself section on the identification of objectives, the clarification of goals, and the development of an educational plan. Most of the theoretical materials have been omitted from the *Guide*, and students interested in this aspect are urged to contact their advisors for access to Chapters II and III of the *Handbook*.

We have benefited enormously from the suggestions of the large numbers of students, faculty, and staff personnel who used these materials in working paper form.

We are particularly indebted to Jan Hagberg, Metropolitan State University (Minnesota), who counseled us from the beginning, introduced us to new sources of information, urged us to explore new areas, and gave us the benefit of her careful reading at various stages in the development of this final product.

Arthur Chickering, Empire State College, worked with us on the first drafts of these materials, and many of his contributions are reflected in this publication. Edith Arrick, San Francisco State University, assisted us in developing the materials, tested them with her students, and helped us to organize them for maximum effectiveness in both learning and assessment.

We are grateful to Nobuyo Matsunami for the beautiful calligraphy and for creative charts and models. Carol Andrews of San Francisco State and Jessie Cryer of ETS typed most of the final draft and, in the process, caught many errors and found ways to improve the clarity of the text.

Paul Breen
Thomas F. Donlon
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I. Academic Recognition and Assessment of Interpersonal Competence

> People work is work that purports to serve the more subtle—but nonetheless real—interpersonal and psychological needs of individuals as well as groups. There are many areas of life where people-work employment categories could be developed in vast new services for special groups and purposes—the very young and the very old, ever more differentiated urban and community task forces, new agencies for community development, political participation, and intergroup conflict resolution, to name but a few.[1]

In this introductory chapter we present, first, a survey of the reasons for widespread academic interest in the development and assessment of interpersonal competence, and second, a discussion of the problems involved.

VITAL ROLES OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

"Interpersonal competence may be a basic need of man."[2] Certainly it is central to success in many occupations and in much of the routine business of living. And the pure enjoyment of life in the company of other human beings is directly related to the level of interpersonal competence. On the other hand, deficiency in interpersonal skills is probably the single most common reason for failures on the job. It may also be the most prevalent source of discord and unpleasantness in our personal lives.

Since the role of interpersonal relationships is so pervasive and vital, it is important for educators to consider the development of competence in these relationships as a central concern in the academic programs of postsecondary institutions.

Data, People, and Things. We have already acknowledged the pioneering work of Sidney Fine that is reflected throughout these guidelines. Although he has written primarily about the world of work, Dr. Fine's conclusion that all aspects of our occupational lives are related to "data, people and things" is as basic for academicians as it is for employees. In fact, it is helpful to think of all education, whether it is conceived as job-related or not, as fitting into one or more of these three categories.

Although many postsecondary institutions do grant credit for such diverse psychomotor skills as typing, golfing, dancing, and ceramics, they deal less with "things" than they do with "data" and "people." Certain subjects, for example, history, physics, philosophy, biology, and botany, deal almost exclusively with data even though it may be with data about people. Others, such as speech, education, psychology, and political science, put a stronger emphasis on interpersonal relationships even though they are sometimes studied as data about people rather than as skills in dealing with people.

---

[1] Brigitte Berger, "The Coming Age of People Work," p. 29.

[2] Chris Argyris, "Explorations in Interpersonal Competence—I," p. 59. Argyris credits this conclusion to R. W. White, "Sense of Interpersonal Competence," in R. W. White (Ed.), *The Study of Lives*, pp. 72-93.

The need for new efforts to develop effective training in interpersonal skills is underlined by two interrelated facts: the insufficient attention that has traditionally been given to many aspects of training in interpersonal skills; and the relative advantages of experiential, rather than purely informational, modes of interpersonal skills education.[3]

Traditional Programs and Requirements. When the subject of interpersonal competence is broadly defined as applicable to virtually all relationships between or among people, it must be acknowledged that there is already a vast amount of successful acitivity in many postsecondary institutions. Programs in counseling, social work, business, and teacher training provide instruction (often using experiential modes, such as practice teaching) aimed at the development of specific job-related interpersonal skills—interviewing, advising, managing, selling, and instructing. Psychology and sociology departments offer programs of instruction in the development and application of such skills as interpersonal perception, leadership, group participation, and family living. English, speech, drama, and other instructional areas concentrate on the development of verbal and nonverbal communications skills and use a wide variety of both experiential and informational teaching modes.

> An example of the growing recognition of interpersonal competence as an important requirement are the following excerpts from an articulation agreement among public and private postsecondary institutions in California. The statements are included in a list of criteria for social work education programs.[4]
>
> Recommended for lower-division students:
>
>> A content area concerned with interpersonal relations and communications and their effectiveness. Emphasis is on increased understanding of self and others to gain skill in face-to-face interaction in small group and task-oriented activities. Included are: the individual as both initiator and respondent; the meaning of verbal and nonverbal communication and the factors which enhance or restrict interaction; increasing productive relationships in a variety of communicative settings; and communicative styles of people from various cultures.
>
> For the content area described above and for others, the agreement emphasizes the need for experiential education in order to achieve the objectives:
>
>> The education in the human services/social work professions assumes a philosophy of mutual interdependence of academic and supervised field work experiences.
>>
>> Such field experiences embody selected learning by doing as different from mere observation or unsupervised volunteer work.
>>
>> The objective of such training is to prepare students to function as

---

[3] In his paper "Differences between Experiential and Classroom Learning," James S. Coleman discusses the differences between "information assimilation" and "experiential learning" (p. 50). He concludes that knowledge in this area is in a primitive state but that "even now it is clear from some of the properties of experiential learning that academic learning can be made considerably more effective by the appropriate mix of experiential and information assimilation modes of learning" (p. 58). In Morris T. Keeton and Associates, *Experiential Learning: Rationale, Characteristics, and Assessment.*

[4] From the *Articulation Agreement for Social Work and Human Services Programs*, Articulation Conference of California, Administrative Committee, January 15, 1973.

human services practitioners who integrate their academic and experiential knowledge of human behavior with additional growth experiences derived from helping people.

Yet the total impact of contemporary educational systems falls short of satisfying the almost universal need for more effective development of interpersonal competence. Both the need for more training and the value of the experiential learning model for acquiring it have been analyzed in detail by Roger Harrison and Richard Hopkins. In reporting their studies of experience-based training for cross-cultural communications skills, they observed that "the inapplicability of traditional university-based training has become a chronic complaint in organizations which must prepare large numbers of persons for service overseas."[5] They found that "the human elements of overseas work are at least as important as the technical ones in the success of a job or mission, and that overseas personnel are much more likely to be deficient in these human aspects of work performance than in technical skills."[6] Although Harrison and Hopkins were interested particularly in cross-cultural training, their careful comparisons of the traditional university model with experience-based models are applicable to almost any kind of education that seeks to prepare people to deal with other people.[7] Their article, which won the Douglas McGregor Memorial Award in 1976, is not hostile to traditional classroom education, but it does present convincing evidence that the vital aspects of interpersonal competence needed by today's college graduates can best be achieved by developing experience-based supplements to traditional programs.

Clearly, interpersonal skills are of vital importance. In nearly all jobs and careers, there is some, and in many an almost exclusive, emphasis on dealing with people—as clients, as co-workers, as supervisors, or as subordinates. As a result, there are new emphases on interpersonal skills in some academic fields that have not previously provided adequately for this dimension of individual educational needs. There is a more explicit treatment of interpersonal skills in some fields where they are recognized as important but, for various reasons, assumed to be largely outside the instructional realm. And, most importanttly, there is a growing body of methods and procedures for experiential learning of interpersonal skills which, even when recognized and emphasized, cannot be developed adequately in classroom situations.

This need for new procedures is highlighted by the growing volume of requests from mature adults for academic recognition of interpersonal competence. Extensive service in community organizations, in public office, or in both volunteer and paid jobs has equipped many individuals with interpersonal skills for which they are now seeking academic recognition.

These two pressures, the necessity for interpersonal skills in occupational competence and the presentation of interpersonal achievements by mature learners, are somewhat different. The first pressure is characteristic of *sponsored* learning—institutionally sanctioned or recognized. The second tends more to reflect *prior* learning, as mature adults seek to win recognition for life achievements. Although institutions are confronted by a need for policy, each of these pressures is sufficiently distinct that institutions will vary in the judgments they make about them.

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[5] Roger Harrison and Richard L. Hopkins, "The Design of Cross-cultural Training: An Alternative to the University Model," p. 431.

[6] Harrison and Hopkins, pp. 434-35.

[7] The owner-manager of a large firm of certified public accountants told the writers of this manual that the universities provide excellent training in technical skills for his employees but that, "They're still no good in the office because they don't know how to get along with me." Initially skeptical about CAEL's Interpersonal Skills project, he later offered the cooperation of his office in a CAEL-supported field study.

These guidelines have been prepared to help administrators and faculty members respond to this growing need by strengthening their interpersonal competence training and assessment services both for the crediting of prior learning and for campus-sponsored programs.

PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES IN EDUCATION FOR INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE

Interpersonal competence is an exceptionally difficult area both for instruction and for evaluation. Some educators doubt that very much can be done, even with major interinstitutional efforts, to develop viable academic programs of interpersonal skills education. A few are opposed to the idea of granting credit for interpersonal skills, even if more adequate methods of instruction and assessment are developed.

Some of the pessimism and perhaps most of the negative feeling reflect semantic, rather than substantive, disagreements. One college president, for example, who was consulted during the development of these guidelines initially expressed extremely strong reservations: "We would never give credit in our institution for interpersonal skills." Another scholar, while acknowledging the academic validity of training in interpersonal skills, expressed the belief that the subject is so peripheral to the basic thrust of postsecondary education that only the largest institutions could afford the luxury of crediting interpersonal competence.

Discussion with both of these individuals, however, revealed that the problem was primarily one of definition. (It is partly for this reason that the next chapter of this *Handbook* is devoted to defining terms.) Both of the educators quoted above associated the term "interpersonal" primarily with encounter groups and sensitivity training. One of them believed that such activities have no place on a college transcript, and the other considered them to be a peripheral luxury. However, they both accepted, as a necessary and normal part of their curricula, the teaching and crediting of skills in business management, forensics, counseling, and many other traditional subjects that fall within the broader definition of "interpersonal competence" addressed by these guidelines.

Beyond purely semantic differences, successful guidelines for learning and assessing interpersonal skills must cope with several additional problems. (a) The subject is both vast and complex, involving every aspect of human relations; (b) it is so closely related to constellations of personality characteristics and attitudes developed in early childhood that both training and measurement are extremely difficult; and (c) interpersonal relationships involve so much that is affective and so much that is intimately personal that there are major disagreements about the role of academic institutions in this field.

One study of these problems led two researchers at the University of Kentucky to conclude that the academic profession is faced with a major paradox in the area of interpersonal skills education. Building on the works of Krathwohl and Carkhuff, the Kentucky study concluded that the "separation of cognitive and affective competence is deeply rooted in Judeo-Christian religion and highly valued in cultures with western democratic traditions."[8] They identify such cultural norms as "the constitutional separation of church and state" and the "traditional distinction between education and indoctrination" as barriers to the legitimation of interpersonal learning.

The Krathwohl-Carkhuff Paradox

"The paradox is that:

1. While professionals who are to provide effective "help" to their clients need (an) array of affective skills (empathy, trust, respect for others, character —);
2. While the skills can be stated as goals, successfully taught to many persons; and
3 While competence in these skills can be assessed;

strong cultural norms may prohibit all three."[9]

None of these difficulties, however, puts the subject of interpersonal competence outside the boundaries of academic consideration. That the field is vast and complex does not distinguish it from many others which receive primary attention of researchers, teachers, and assessment specialists. Interpersonal competence may have its foundations anchored to relatively stable personality characteristics, but—like many, if not most, other skills areas—it is responsive to training and to the measurement of growth. There are values and emotions associated with the exercise of interpersonal skills, but that fact seems neither unique nor disqualifying. Perhaps it is not extreme to suggest that education cannot be effective without also being affective.

Moral and ethical questions (for example, issues relating to the use of such negative skills as conning, misleading, distorting, black-mailing, etc.) are likely to arise in the context of interpersonal skills learning situations. Again, however, such questions are not new to the academy (for example, the role of biological research in the development of germ warfare). But these problems are not sufficient to place "off the academic limits" an area of education that is as vital as this to the career and personal well-being of the educated person.

Perhaps it is not too much to suggest, in summary, that the very facts of its complexity and its difficulty are among the strongest arguments that could be made for paying greater academic attention to the study of interpersonal competence. Even with all of the difficulties, there still seems to be an urgent necessity for expanding postsecondary treatment of the complex realm of interpersonal skills development.

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[8] Henry Cole and Warren Lacefield, "Skill Domains for the Helping Professions," unpublished paper, July 7, 1975, p. 9. The authors based their conclusions on the writings of D. R. Krathwohl and R. R. Carkhuff and on the results of a CAEL-sponsored research project conducted at the University of Kentucky.

[9] Cole and Lacefield, p. 14.

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II. The Range Of Interpersonal Competence: Definitions And Concepts

DEFINITIONS

Reduced to a single sentence, the purpose of this *Handbook* is to facilitate the teaching, learning, and assessment of: *college-creditable interpersonal competence as it is acquired or sharpened in experiential situations.*

Before we explore the theoretical foundations of the interpersonal domain, it is important to define some of the terms we will be using. Our definitions of *competence, interpersonal, experiential,* and *college-creditable* are not proposed as universal standards, but as descriptions of the concepts that have been applied in the preparation of this *Handbook.* We recognize the virtues of diversity among postsecondary learning programs and have tried to avoid prescription and rigidity in favor of flexible approaches that can be adapted to many different institutional environments.

Competence And Skill

Competence is seen as more general and complex behavior, as in "managing competence" or "instructional competence." *Skill,* on the other hand, is seen as a more specific term; thus, competence is achieved by the attainment of a number of component skills.

Competence is defined as effective performance of a specified task or function. "Effective performance" (in interpersonal relations or in any other field) is assumed to include three levels of complexity: knowing, applying, and evaluating. *Knowing* includes retaining and recalling the theory and methodology, or the history and literature, and the context of a subject. *Applying* means being able to use this information in new situations, and being able to analyze relationships among the data. *Evaluating* means being able to judge the value of the data which are known and applied, and to support an informed judgment about the evaluation by developing appropriate evidence for it.[10]

Four general categories of competence are identified in this *Handbook*.[11] They are listed below and expanded in Figure 1.

a. *Psychomotor skills* (such as typewriting, keypunching, kicking a football, etc.)
b. *Data storage and retrieval* (recall and recognition of factual material such as dates, names, places, actions—in other words, the answers to the "who, what, when, and where" question words).
c. *Understanding interrelationships of data* (analysis, synthesis, explication—the answers to the "how and why" question words).

---

[10] These definitions of *knowing, applying,* and *evaluating* are based on materials developed and used by the faculty of Metropolitan State University (Minnesota).

[11] For our purposes, the three categories of competence (things, data, people) identified in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (U. S. Department of Labor) have been extended to four by distinguishing between the simpler data functions (recall and recognition) described as "level one" and the more complex data functions (analysis, synthesis, explication) described as "level two." We have also chosen to refer to the "things, data, people" categories as the "psychomotor, informational, and interpersonal" skills areas.

Figure 1
Inventory of Functional Competences

Psychomotor (Things)	**Informational (Data)**		**Interpersonal (People)**	
	Level I	**Level II**		
Setting-up Precision working Operating Driving Manipulating Constructing Assembling Connecting Tending Handling Measuring Weighing Feeding	Recalling Retaining Storing Recording Recognizing	Creating • evaluating • valuing Predicting Synthesizing Coordinating • conceptualizing • integrating • formulating • defining • categorizing • reflecting Analyzing • extrapolating • interpreting • deducing • assuming • inducing • describing • translating • differentiating • investigating Observing • identifying	Mentoring • counseling • advising • guiding • interviewing • strategy planning Managing • producing • administering • directing • chairing • coordinating • organizing • programming • planning • designing Leading • motivating • controlling • manipulating • determining Negotiating • renegotiating • finalizing • resolving • bargaining • reconciling • arbitrating • facilitating • recommending Instructing • training • teaching • reinforcing • testing • explaining • demonstrating • presenting	Supervising • determining • interpreting • assigning • maintaining Consulting • advising • clarifying • discussing • reporting • conferring Persuading • coaching • advocating • influencing • molding • advising Communicating • speaking • interviewing • writing • responding • signaling • listening • stimulating • conning • manipulating Entertaining • dancing • singing • acting • story-telling • miming Serving Helping

d. *Interpersonal domain* (managing, leading, instructing, communicating, etc.).

The first three categories are centered on relationships between the person and the environment, and they can be exercised without any necessary interaction with another person. The fourth category, the interpersonal domain, includes all of the skills that enable a person to relate effectively to other persons. Our specific interest is this fourth category, but the other three are included in order to provide an appropriate context, and because the exercise of interpersonal competence depends to a considerable degree on such person-environment skills—particularly those involving analysis, synthesis, and explication of data.

Interpersonal Competence

Interpersonal competence, or skill, when defined narrowly is often limited to those skills that affect purposive, face-to-face encounters in a group small enough to afford immediate feedback.

Since these guidelines have been developed to accommodate a wider range of perspectives about interpersonal relationships, we have adopted a broader definition of interpersonal competence. To suggest a minimum level of skill consistent with the idea of creditable competence we have defined interpersonal competence in terms of communications skill as "basic interpersonal literacy." Basic interpersonal literacy is knowing *when* (a) and *how* (b) to communicate *what* (c) to *whom* (d) *in order to achieve specified goals* (e).

a. WHEN to communicate (the timing of interpersonal communication). A person possessing adequate interpersonal skills will know when to listen and when to interrupt; whether to make a suggestion at the beginning of a conversation or to wait until later after necessary information has been supplied; whether to scold (or praise) immediately after an action, or wait until later with a clearer perspective or a different group of listeners, etc.

b. HOW to communicate (the *medium* of interpersonal communication). A person who is interpersonally literate will know whether to transmit a message orally, whether to do it in writing, or whether to use nonverbal techniques.

c. WHAT to communicate (the *content* of interpersonal communication). The person skilled in interpersonal communications knows what are the appropriate data, questions, behaviors, or feelings to transmit.

d. To WHOM to communicate (the *target* of interpersonal communication). The interpersonally literate person knows which audience to select and, when communicating with more than one person, whether or not to send identical messages, whether or not to inform each person that others are receiving the same (or different) messages, etc.

e. IN ORDER TO ACHIEVE SPECIFIED GOALS (the *intention* of communication). The person who is interpersonally literate will be able to use communications skills to maximize the attainment of goals that are congruent with his own and other's feelings, actions, and interpretations and be able to recognize when they are not congruent.

This definition of interpersonal literacy does not presume any judgment about the merit of the goals in terms of some system of universal standards or values. It focuses on the possession of skills that are useful in the attainment of goals of whatever quality. It is assumed, however, that postsecondary educators will restrict their recognition of creditable interpersonal competence to achievements whose goals are consistent with institutional values and that meet appropriate standards. In the "Concepts and Skills" section of this Chapter we will explore the degrees of interpersonal literacy from the basic minimum to the highest level.

Experiential Learning

Experiential learning situations may, by the broadest definition, encompass all learning. By this definition it would include formal classroom lectures that have traditionally been the core "experience" for college and university students. Regardless of scope, definitions of experiential learning have assumed that it involves a more active role for the student. For example:

debating—not just being told how to marshall and express arguments
teaching—not just being told how to conduct a class
keeping a balance sheet—not just hearing or reading about the principles of accounting.

Under the broadest definition, the experiential aspects of these three examples and of many others can take place in the classroom or elsewhere and with or without the supervision of an instructor. For our purposes, however, the definition is restricted to experiential learning not directly supervised by an instructor even though sponsored by the campus and coordinated by a faculty member. Clearly, prior learning, which occurs without the awareness or sanction of the institution, and in a nonacademic setting, is experiential by this definition.

In summary, these guidelines have been developed for *experiential learning including both prior learning and campus-sponsored learning, which may be an integral part of a course, but in which the experience is not directly supervised by the instructor.* It includes work experience both before and after matriculation, internships, fieldwork not supervised by the instructor, travel and residence in other countries, volunteer work, avocational activity, various activities in organizations such as churches, political parties, and campaigns, and even life experience such as marriage and parenthood. Experiential situations vary in the environment in which they take place, the activities which the learner carries out, and the outcomes they lead to. The box below is based on Appendix C, which presents a number of such experiential situations.

College-Creditable Learning

These guidelines have been developed for assessing experientially-learned interpersonal skills that are college-creditable. It is not our intention to offer a definitive answer to questions about the creditability of any particular competence. Although no universal standard is suggested or sought, we have tried to develop guidelines that will be helpful in the vital task of setting standards. Ultimately, however, the answers to this question must be found in the professional practices of thousands of postsecondary educational institutions which grant or recognize credit for undergraduate degrees at the associate or baccalaureate levels.

In spite of such institutional autonomy, however, some general remarks can be offered. For example, with respect to the *timing* of interpersonal communica-

LEARNING: Environments, Activities, Outcomes		
Environments	**Activities**	**Professional Skills**
#9 Volunteer coordinator in rehabilitation center	recruiting, training, assigning and supervising volunteers in various jobs	Leading Managing Supervising Negotiating Instructing
#14 Summer camp	counseling and disciplining campers, acting as "dorm parent" and group leader	Mediating Leading Persuading Counseling Instructing
#23 League of Women Voters	chairing a committee, preparing portfolios of information, lobbying, training researchers and group leaders	Managing Persuading Consulting Instructing
(Excerpts from Appendix C)		

tions, it is probable that mastering of the simple rule "praise in public, scold in private" is not, by itself, creditable at any level. Virtually any successful parent or work supervisor knows and applies this basic rule. Such simple knowledge and application, however, is not enough. Possibly the third aspect of effective performance, evaluating, when added to knowing and applying, could result in a creditable competence, but without it the level of attainment is insufficient.

For most levels of degree programs, then, creditable competence will require all three components: knowledge, application, and evaluation, and a complex combination of the many skills which comprise interpersonal literacy. For example, the particular skills combination required for supervision of a small group of office workers might be creditable at the lower-division undergraduate level. On the other hand, the more complex "knowledge, application, and evaluation" of these same skills required for personnel management in an international business conglomerate might be an appropriate area for credit at the graduate level.

The two boxes below, for example, illustrate the different levels of competence required in different professional assignments. In the next section we will explore in greater detail the differentiation of levels of interpersonal competence.

Supervising (from Appendix B)

- assigns tasks
- discusses subordinates' use of discretion
- explains operating procedure
- implements performance standards
- examines task outcome against stated criteria
- directs studies
- evaluates performance
- interprets results of task performance
- judges content and consequences of discretionary decisions
- sets task objectives
- assesses individual competence to perform a given task
- ensures performance standards necessary to achieve objectives

Managing (from Appendix B)

- sets goals and performance standards
- establishes communication channels
- promotes the free flow of two-way communication
- formulates policies and directs their implementation
- coordinates tasks, activities, and programs
- plans conferences
- makes decisions on personnel matters
- provides evaluation of progress
- prescribes alternative approaches to solving problems
- administers and implements the policies of supervisors
- allows others to lead
- takes responsibility for duties and tasks under jurisdiction

CONCEPTS AND SKILLS: OPERATIONALIZING COMMUNICATIVE CHOICES

Webster defines *operational* as "in condition to undertake a destined function." Communication skills are the most basic "destined functions" of persons seeking to achieve interpersonal competence. We have defined interpersonal competence in terms of these skills as *knowing when and how to communicate what to whom in order to achieve specified goals.*

To operationalize that definition we turn now to the process of breaking down communicative decision making into a series of intra- and interpersonal operations or procedures leading to the selection of communicative behaviors that are appropriate to specified goals. We will look *first* at the types of communicative behaviors from which choices have to be made, *second* at the variables which have to be taken into account in making these choices, and *third* at the skills, intra- and interpersonal, which are needed to complete the process.

Types of Communicative Behaviors

In its simplest form the range of communicative behaviors can be described by a four-cell matrix which represents *sending* and *receiving* of both verbal and nonverbal messages (Figure 2).

Figure 2
Essential Communicative Behaviors

	Verbal	*Nonverbal*
Receiving	1. Using expressive, descriptive, and evaluative statements to enhance a verbal message 2. Restating the main points of a message without major additions, deletions, or distortions 3. Using language and syntax to convey the intended meaning of a specific message 4. Analyzing and using alternative communication techniques when misunderstandings or breakdowns in the communication process occur either on the sending or receiving side	1. Using the following cues in a manner congruent with intentions: a. facial expressions b. posture c. hand and arm gestures d. body movement e. overall appearance and style of dress
Sending	1. Hearing, identifying, and accurately interpreting: a. content of messages b. changes in tone of voice c. changes in rate of speech d. key words and ideas e. evaluative statements f. feeling statements g. descriptive (i.e., factual) statements h. general outline and organization of messages	1. Seeing, identifying, and accurately interpreting the following cues: a. facial expression b. posture c. hand and arm gestures d. body movement e. overall appearance and style of dress

The lists in Figure 2 are representative rather than exhaustive, and each of the items is not only a *behavioral outcome* of the communications process but also a skill necessary to the achievement of interpersonal competence. Silence is recognized as an important response modality implied in the verbal and explicit in the nonverbal categories. Nor do all such behaviors involve the use of the overt vocal signals we normally associate with communication. As we construct a process model of basic interpersonal literacy, these communicative behaviors/skills will form the outer ring as the essential outcomes of the process (Figure 3).

Variables Affecting the Choice of Behaviors

The process of selecting appropriate communicative behaviors requires two or more simultaneous analytic operations, one for self and one for each of the others involved. Each of these analyses must take account of three sets of variables: (a) affective, (b) sociocultural, and (c) the intentions or goals of the participants.

The important affective qualities, of self and of the other participants, include feelings (emotional state or disposition), and attitudes (mental state or mood). These are closely related to values (worth, in usefulness or importance to the possessor) and beliefs (acceptance or conviction of the actuality of something). The latter two overlap with the sociocultural variables described in the next section, and they are all listed in Figure 4.

The sociocultural variables, for both self and others, include the familiar demographic items (age, sex, race, role, etc.), a full range of formal and informal customs or rules of social behavior, and the values and beliefs categories mentioned above. These factors and conditions that moderate the expression of feeling and influence the choice of communicative behaviors are treated in greater detail in Chapter III.

Intentions and other variables. This category is included to represent the wide range of other factors that influence any decision-making process. The most obvious of these are the intentions or goals of the communicators, the resources available to each to achieve those goals, and the perceptions which all of the communicators have about their own and the others' intentions and resources.

Our purpose in introducing the affective, sociocultural, and intention-goals variables at this point is to place, at the center of the communication model, the raw materials from which communicative outcomes in the outer circle are derived. With this addition the model now looks like Figure 5, p. 16.

Choosing Communicative Behaviors

What remains—in the blank middle ring of the model—is the relating of the variables in the *core* to the communicative behaviors in the *outer ring*. What skills, both cognitive and affective, are needed? What is the process by which these skills are used to select communicative behaviors which will be congruent with the changing mix of core variables?

The Basic Cognitive Skills. We have already seen that the essential steps in the communications process are the analysis of three sets of variables for each com-

figure 3

communicative behaviors

communicative
behaviors

Figure 4
Major Factors Influencing the Selection of Communicative Behaviors

SOCIOCULTURAL VARIABLES

Demographic Variables

1. Age
2. Sex
3. Race
4. Role
5. Social Status
6. Economic Status
7. Group Size
8. Group Type

Rules of Social Behavior

INFORMAL CUSTOMS:

- Etiquette, manners, and forms—all of the behavioral do(s) and don't(s) transmitted over time via the dual mediums of tradition and convention, covering such diverse areas of social behavior as conversation, eating, writing, appearance, entertaining, etc.

FORMAL CUSTOMS:

- Ceremonies and rituals—such as engagements, weddings, funerals, births, anniversaries, and dedications.

*Values**	*Beliefs**
health	Judaism
security	Buddhism
money	Islam
prestige	democracy
family	communism
honesty	motherhood

AFFECTIVE QUALITIES

Feelings			*Attitudes*		
Love	Anxiety	Sadness	Empathy	Openness	Genuineness
Anger	Compassion	Jealousy	Tolerance	Respect	Acceptance
Guilt	Grief	Happiness	Courtesy	Understanding	Responsibility
Fear	Loyalty	Sympathy	Patience	Congruence	Integrity

The definitions below guided the choices of items above. Our purposes, however, are only to suggest that, however one may choose to define its specific components, the subjective quality of affective learning is an important variable in the communication process.

Feeling: emotional state or dispositions

Attitude: mental state or mood reflected in one's manner of acting or thinking.

Value: worth in usefulness or importance to the possessor

Belief: acceptance or conviction of the truth or actuality of something.

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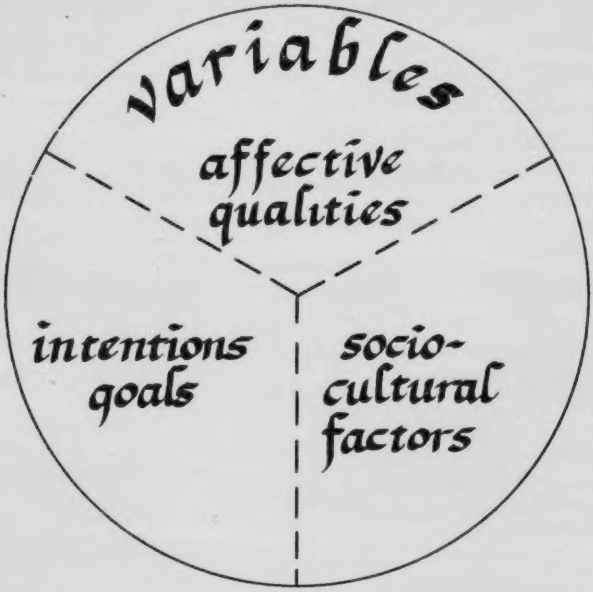
*Values and Beliefs are shown between Sociocultural Variables and Affective Qualities because their formation is influenced both by environment (sociocultural) and heredity (relatively stable personality traits).

figure 5

variables affecting communicative behavior


variables
affective qualities
intentions goals
socio-cultural factors

municator (including self), and the selection and utilization of communicative behaviors that best fit a particular situation. The middle-ring skills which form this necessary foundation for the interpersonal competence in the outer ring are mostly *intra*personal or informational skills such as observing, analyzing, evaluating, and predicting (Figure 6).

All of these *intra*personal skills continue to be important, alongside the *inter*personal skills, as the process moves beyond the *selection* of communicative behaviors to the actual *exercise* of those behaviors.

Our completed basic communications model with all three parts combined is shown in Figure 7.

The Basic Affective Skills. Before we summarize the process that this model illustrates, it is important to add the affective component. Both the intra- and the interpersonal skills noted in the model involve affective as well as cognitive processes. Thus, a complete list of the basic skills by which one chooses and uses communicative behaviors must include emotive as well as intellective competence.

We have already noted the wide professional disagreement about the nature and role of affective skills in postsecondary learning programs.[12] We will not pretend to suggest a complete list of such skills or to argue that there is compelling evidence as to which should and should not be considered basic prerequisites for interpersonal competence. We have found it helpful to consider Carkhuff's list of six affective skills or qualities that he believes to be key ingredients in the helping professions:[13]

1. Empathic understanding
2. Communication of respect
3. Personally relevant concreteness
4. Facilitative genuiness
5. Facilitative self-disclosure
6. Positive personal regard

The Basic Communication Process. The model described in the preceding sections illustrates a process by which basic communicative behaviors are chosen. This process requires both intra- and interpersonal skills, and both cognitive-intellective and affective-emotive skills or qualities.

In summary, the steps in the process are:

STEP 1. assess *your own*:
    —intentions or goals
    —affective qualities
    —sociocultural factors

STEP 2. assess these same variables for all the *others* involved in the interaction

STEP 3. select communicative behaviors congruent with the results of these assessments for *self* and *others*

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[12] Cole and Lacefield have suggested that the full array of affective skills identified by Carkhuff constitute something which can be called "character." Their studies have revealed mixed feelings among educators about including these qualities in academic programs. Cole and Lacefield, p. 10.

[13] Robert R. Carkhuff, "Helping and Human Relations: A Brief Guide for Training Lay Helpers," p. 174.

figure 6

intrapersonal skills

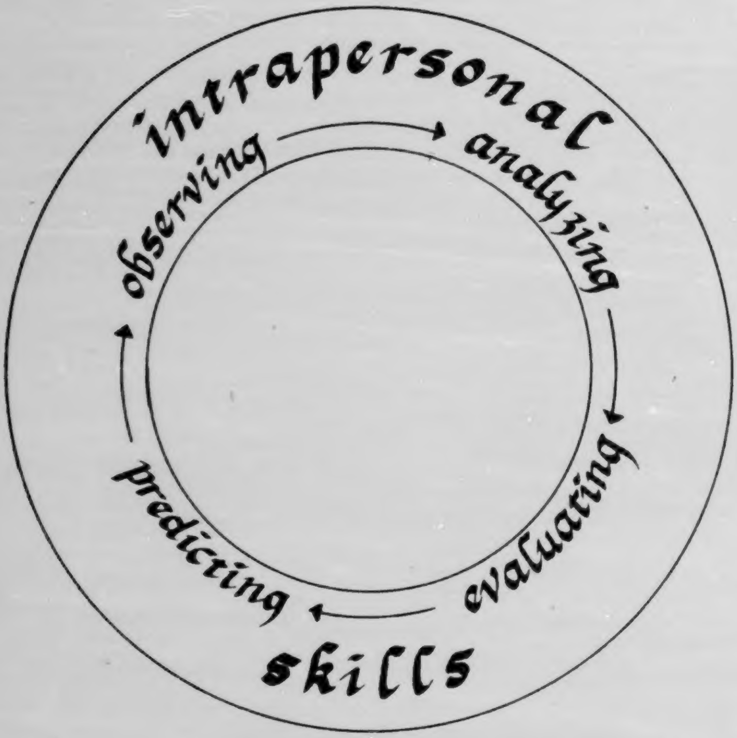
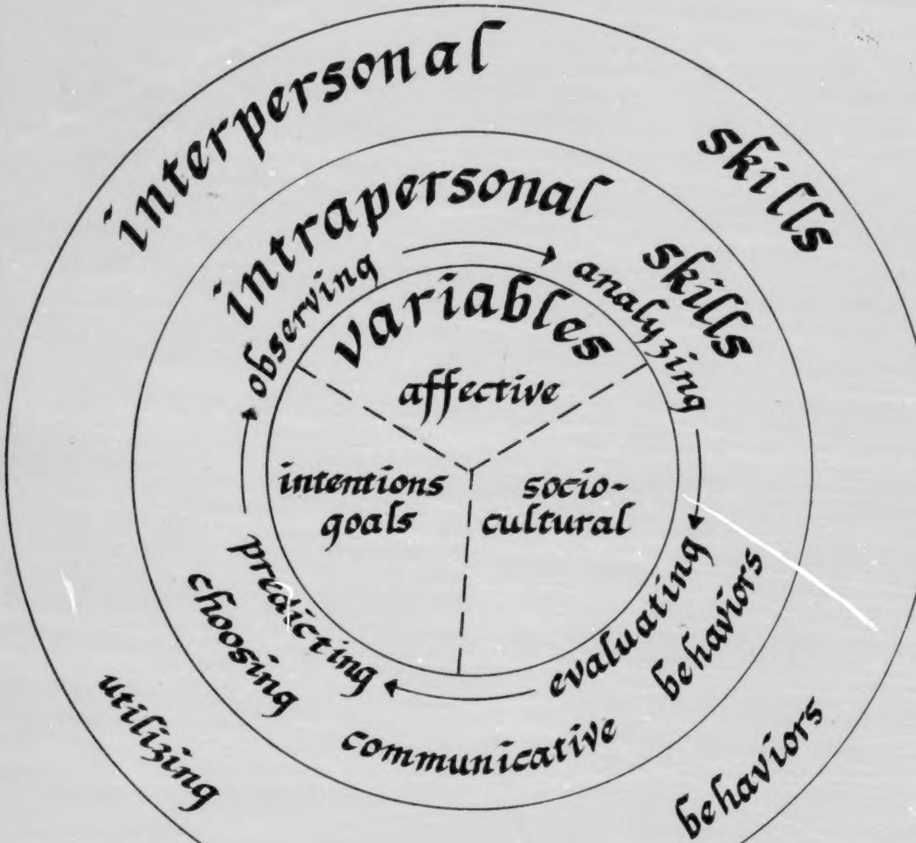

intrapersonal
observing
analyzing
evaluating
predicting
skills

figure 7

interpersonal literacy
basic communicative model


interpersonal
skills
intrapersonal
skills
variables
observing
analyzing
affective
intentions
goals
socio-
cultural
evaluating
predicting
choosing
behaviors
communicative
utilizing
communicative
behaviors

STEP 4. actively seek feedback and continually reevaluate:
—the self-assessment
—the assessment of the others
—the effectiveness of the behaviors selected

STEP 5. If the selection of communicative behaviors proves ineffective, go back to Steps 1 and 2 and make the necessary adjustments to achieve maximum effectiveness.

The process model we have described is only one of many possible approaches. Different individuals will have different preferences, and we recommend that postsecondary educators offer students as wide a variety of communications models as possible.

For example, many educators and students may find the Miller-Nunnally-Wackman "awareness wheel" a helpful means of identifying and assessing the communication skills, qualities, and behaviors of themselves and others. The wheel resembles a flower with five petals each representing a step in the communicative process:

1. *Sensing* (inputs like seeing and hearing);
2. *Feeling* (the affective qualities);
3. *Thinking* (using intrapersonal informational skills to interpret the sensory data and feelings in 1 and 2);
4. *Wanting* (being aware of your own and others' intentions and goals); and
5. *Doing* (outputs such as communicative behaviors).[14]

Levels and Uses of Interpersonal Competence

We have introduced a model to illustrate the basic communication process that we have called *interpersonal literacy: knowing when and how to communicate what to whom in order to achieve specified goals.* We believe that this basic process forms a foundation for the teaching, learning, and assessment of interpersonal competence.

But there is a vital factor yet to be addressed before this concept can be applied: as the goals vary, the level of competence necessary to achieve them will also vary. Interpersonal literacy is a useful fundamental concept. But some persons are more interpersonally literate than others. How can we identify levels and measure degrees of interpersonal competence?

The level of interpersonal competence that is necessary depends on the specific task or goal. The complexity of the task varies according to such factors as the number of persons involved, the importance of speed and accuracy, and the content of the interpersonal transaction. For example, the type and level of interpersonal competence needed by an instructor will vary depending on whether the class is large or small, kindergarten or postgraduate, and whether they are trying to learn interpersonal skills or simple arithmetic.

The communications model and process described above is applicable to the full range of interpersonal competence from the barely literate to the most highly qualified. And it describes a basic communication process that is a necessary foundation for a variety of personal and professional uses. Thus, the cluster of skills and qualities that we have identified as basic interpersonal literacy form a communications nucleus for larger and more specific models. For example, it can be applied to a study of the full range of skills that compose interpersonal competence in personal relationships with friends or family, or in civic and community relationships such as volunteer work or participation in political and social activities.

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[14] Sherod Miller, Elam Nunnally, and Daniel Wackman, *Alive and Aware: Improving Communication in Relationships*, pp. 29-52. They also have a detailed discussion of "styles" of communication, pp. 173-222.

In the next chapter we have plugged this communications nucleus into a larger model to illustrate the range of interpersonal competence in a professional, job-oriented category. We recognize that this specialized application—concerning such functions as mentoring, managing, supervising, and leading—does not apply to all of the important uses of interpersonal competence. It is oriented toward the professional rather than the personal, and toward the leadership rather than the participatory skills. We have chosen it, however, for two reasons: the goal-directed professional applications of interpersonal competence are the most likely to be considered creditable by postsecondary educators; and the leadership categories are, in most cases, easily converted into the corresponding participatory skills. Whether or not the reader is interested specifically in this job-related emphasis, the next chapter may be of interest as a theoretical framework for the study of interpersonal competence. Those whose interest doesn't require more comprehensive theoretical exploration may wish to turn directly to Chapter IV, in which we take up the practical problems of selecting experiential learning sites and developing educational programs.

III.

A Theory Of Basic Skills Development: A Framework For Analyzing And Assessing Interpersonal Competence

The communications model and the definitions advanced in Chapter II form the necessary foundation for expanding upon the concept of interpersonal competence. The purpose of this section is to present a theory of basic life skills development that can serve as a framework for developing and expanding the basic communications process into a more complex model for interpreting the concept of interpersonal competence. In this chapter we offer a number of analytical concepts which are intended to organize the interpersonal domain into a coherent structure.

Many of these concepts are derived from Sidney Fine's theoretical formulation of the nature of skill development. We have freely abstracted from his work, adapting it to our purposes and focusing on its implications for training and assessing interpersonal competence. We feel that his concepts, particularly in their emphasis on the competence for functional behaviors, can be an invaluable asset to those seeking to plan or implement interpersonal communication programs.

A THEORY FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF THREE BASIC LIFE SKILLS

We have discussed in Chapter I the problems confronting education through the growing pressures to recognize interpersonal competence. The size and complexity of the interpersonal area make the task of arriving at adequate generalizations about it extremely difficult. This fact does not distinguish it from other fields, equally complex, which are the focus of massive research and development efforts.

In these times of rapidly accelerating cultural change, an important responsibility of educational planners and policy-makers is to explore and implement new methods for translating the potential for adequate human functioning into achievable behavioral competences. Only educational planning, firmly based on a behaviorally integrated approach to basic skill development, can be expected to meet this challenge. The lack of a useful theoretical framework is a major impediment to effective educational planning and decision making.

If a primary objective of educational institutions is to train individuals to be productive, useful members of society, then it becomes extremely important to define basic skill development in terms of its specific behavioral components. A developmental theory can assist in the achievement of this objective only to the extent that it is supported by empirical evidence that can adequately account for the primary components of human behavior and the time sequences and conditions under which these behaviors are acquired. We hope that this chapter may serve as a framework for further research and program planning in the learning and assessment of functional interpersonal competences.

The theory of basic skills development may be conceptualized in terms of a geographic metaphor that proceeds from (1) a General Landscape of three basic life skills, through (2) a Territory of three functional competences, into (3) the Domain of interpersonal competence, which is the subject of this Handbook.

The General Landscape is composed of three basic life skills: adaptive, functional, and specific content. The Territory of functional skills includes three categories of process skills: psychomotor, informational, and interpersonal—or—three general functions relating to things, data, and people, respectively. This brief geographic sketch outlines the terrain through which we will be traveling towards our ultimate goal, the Domain of interpersonal competence. But, first an expansion upon the concept of the General Landscape and the development of the three basic life skills is essential for an adequate understanding of this analysis of interpersonal competence. Figure 8 is a telescopic view of the General Landscape of three basic life skills, the Territory of functional skills, and the Domain of interpersonal competence. These will be the main points of reference in the following discussion.

The General Landscape

The primary purpose of this section is to draw clearly the distinctions between three broadly different classes of behavior patterns or basic life skills. A secondary purpose is to introduce the concept of functional skills and to explain why they are so important for the experiential learning of interpersonal competences.

Human performance is composed of three different types of basic skills. They are adaptive, functional, and specific content skills. All focused human performance involves all three of these types of skill. Each type of skill is learned principally during different periods of physical and psychological development and under different conditions, and each type is a precondition for the next. Adaptive skills are a necessary foundation for the acquisition of functional skills, and both of these are prerequisite to the acquisition of specific content skills. Each of these points will be addressed in the text and illustrated in the accompanying figures.

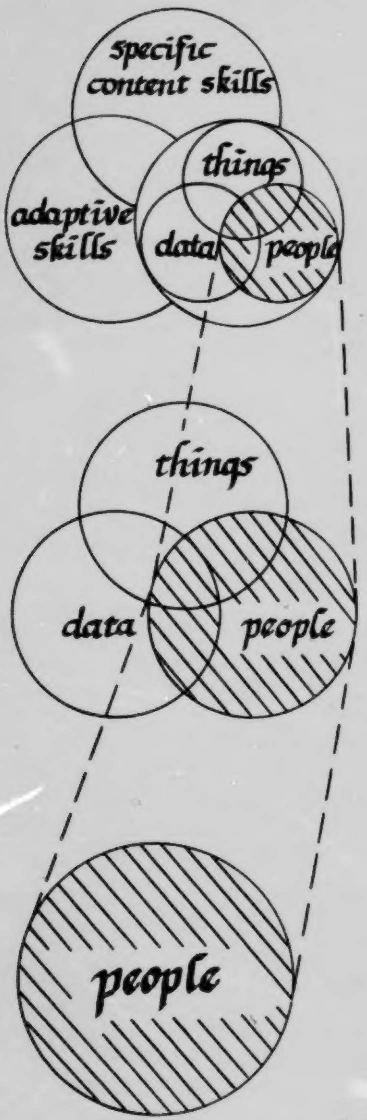
Adaptive Skills are all those competences that enable individuals to adapt their behavior to the demands for conformity and/or change made by the physical, interpersonal, and organizational conditions and requirements of a particular task. Included are the skills of regulating oneself in relation to *authority* (accepting or rejecting others), style of *dress* and *grooming*, *time* (punctuality), *care* of property, and the *control* of impulses (anger, fear, jealousy). Together they compose the self-regulating and self-disciplinary competences that permit a person to utilize appropriate functional and specific content skills. Typically these fundamental behavior patterns are learned during the early developmental years (ages 1-6), primarily through the acceptance of parental prescriptions and directives. Discretionary behaviors are tested among the child's peers. Their acquisition is critical to the continued survival and development of the individual.

The reinforcement of adaptive behavior normally takes place in the earlier years, up to and including the initial school years. Adaptive skills, then, are distinguished from functional skills, which are acquired through education and training and which serve as the basis for measuring individual growth and ability. The acquisition of adequate adaptive skills is the fundamental precondition for the development of functional skills.

The point in the internalization process when an individual's basic adaptive skills become automatic or second nature is known as the level of *adaptive readiness.* When this stage is reached, the individual has succeeded in regulating his/her behavior to meet the various demands for conformity and/or change and is now ready to begin his/her functional education.

figure 8

geographic metaphor


specific content skills
adaptive skills
things
data
people
things
data
people
people

landscape
of 3 life skills

territory
of functional skills

domain
of interpersonal
competence

Functional Skills are all those competences that enable individuals to relate to Things (Psychomotor), Data (Informational), and People (Interpersonal) in some combination according to their personal preferences, and with some degree of complexity appropriate to their abilities. Each individual's people-data-things preference pattern is called a personal *orientation.* The identification of each individual's abilities in the psychomotor, informational, and interpersonal competence areas is referred to as his or her functional *level.*

Functional skills in these three areas, illustrated in Figure 9, are described in greater detail below. These skills are normally acquired in educational training and in avocational pursuits and are reinforced in specific task situations. It is this skill group, particularly the third or *interpersonal* part of it, that is the major focus of this study. We will return to it after describing the Specific Content Skills which round out the three Territorial parts of the General Landscape.

Specific Content Skills are those competences that enable an individual to perform a specific task according to the specifications of the task designer and according to the criteria which make a particular product or service successful. These skills are generally acquired in an advanced training program or through extensive experience in performing a specific task. They are primarily concerned with acquiring content or subject matter expertise.

Two significant interrelationships fundamental to this theory exist among these three basic skill types. First, effective performance involves all three types of skills, complementing and reinforcing each other, as one integrated whole. This functional characteristic is graphically illustrated by Figure 10. Consequently, functional skills will show up best when adaptive skills are most responsive to specific conditions and requirements, and they will show up poorest when adaptive skills are least responsive to specific conditions and requirements. Figure 11 gives three examples of ineffective performance and one example of the skill combinations illustrating effective performance. Second, the acquisition of adaptive skills is the base upon which functional skills are built, and both adaptive and functional skills serve as the foundation upon which specific content skills are built. This hierarchical principle is presented graphically in Figure 12.

The Territory of Functional Skills: Psychomotor, Informational, Interpersonal

All physical, mental, and interpersonal activities can be divided into three distinct functional hierarchies, each arranged from the simple to the complex. These three functional hierarchies are the psychomotor, the informational, and the interpersonal. The Inventory of Functional Competences (Figure 1, p. 7) presumes that all performance involves each of these three categories of functions in various combinations. The effectiveness of performance depends on both the *level* of the individual's abilities and the degree to which the individual's orientation towards the three categories corresponds with those required by the task.

The following three principles are offered as useful tools for understanding the organization of the territory of functional skills. Each principle is illustrated by a figure in the text.

First, there is the principle of the overlap or interdependence of the three

figure 9

general landscape of 3 basic life skills

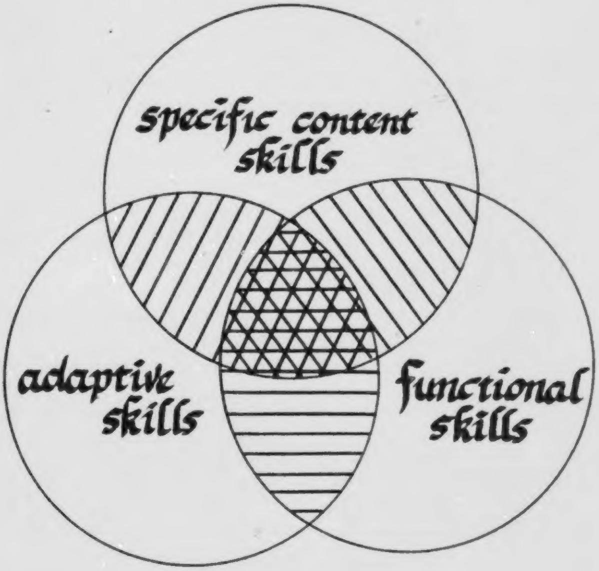

specific content skills
adaptive skills
functional skills

figure 10

territory of functional skills

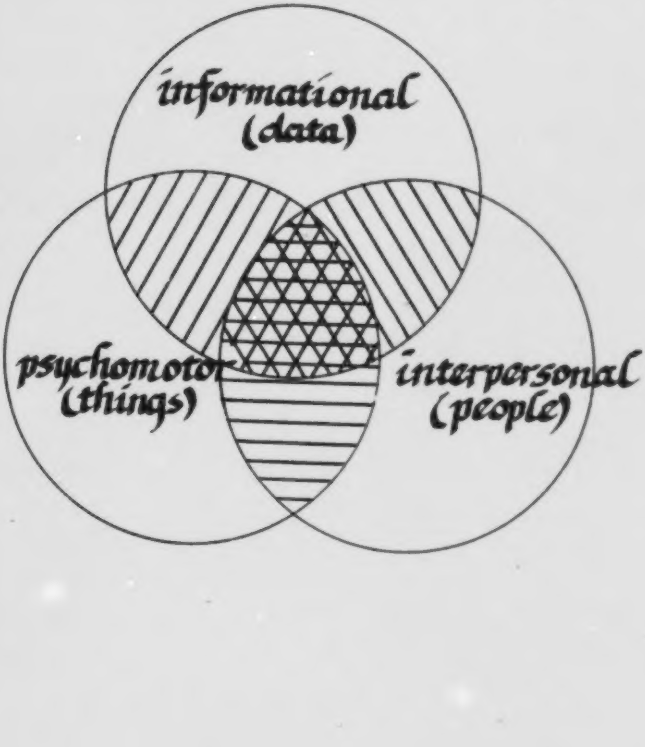
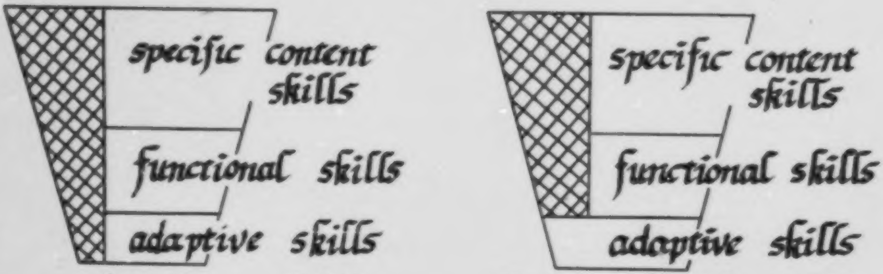

informational
(data)
psychomotor
(things)
interpersonal
(people)

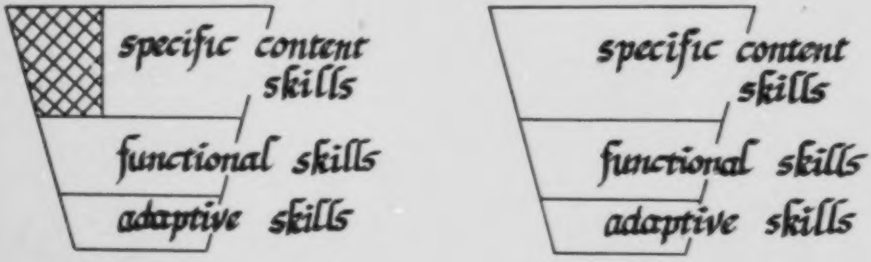
figure 11

variations in performance effectiveness


specific content skills
functional skills
adaptive skills
specific content skills
functional skills
adaptive skills

a. adaptive skills weakness

b. functional skills weakness

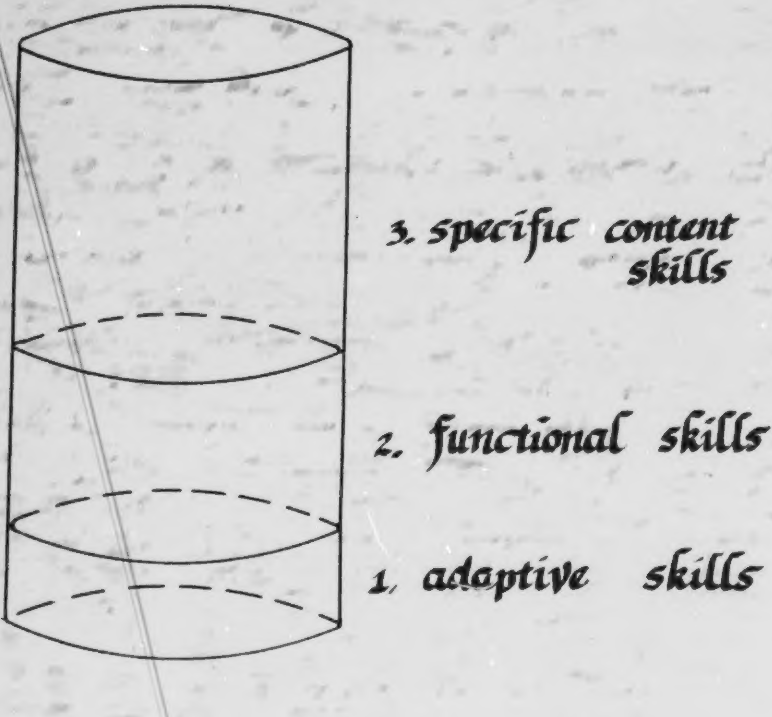

specific content skills
functional skills
adaptive skills
specific content skills
functional skills
adaptive skills

c. specific content skills weakness

d. effective performance no weakness

figure 12

hierarchal ordering of 3 basic life skills


3. specific content skills
2. functional skills
1. adaptive skills

functional hierarchies. This principle states that on the higher levels of the psychomotor and interpersonal domains there is a substantial overlap with the informational domain and that on the lowest level the implied functions of observing and listing apply across all three domains. Figure 13, p. 31 illustrates this principle through the use of three interlocking circles. The selection of these equally sized circles is arbitrary. They are intended only to represent the interdependence among the three areas of functional skills. In fact, it is recognized that the appropriate balance and overlap among the three types of skills will vary both from person to person and from situation to situation.

Second, there is the principle of the individual orientations in relation to these three categories of functional competences. This principle is demonstrated in Figure 14 on p. 32. The purpose of this illustration is to give a few of the infinite number of combinations of the three functional skills as they relate to real-life situations.

Why do individuals have different orientations in relation to things, data, and people? Over a period of time, some individuals appear to acquire preferences and relative strengths and weaknesses with regard to their *physical*, *mental*, and *interpersonal* potentials. These three potentials roughly correspond to the things, data, and people of their environments. Thus, each individual develops a unique orientation and mixture of competence levels in these three areas that becomes through experience his or her personal profile or self-concept. Possibly what starts as a minor preference, originating from a single reinforced successful experience, gathers strength through continued reinforcement and eventually evolves into the development of a self-concept.

Underlying the foundation of all human performance are the assumptions that people have three basic sets of functional potentials that selectively interact with the things, data, and people in their environment in terms of an accumulating and evolving self-concept.

Third, there is the principle of the hierarchical ordering of the three functional domains. This states that there are simple (i.e., prescribed) elements of tasks and complex (i.e., discretionary) elements of tasks and that, by evaluating these, interpersonal functions can be arranged in a vertical hierarchy. Those functions containing the most prescription and the least discretion are placed at the bottom of the hierarchy, and the functions with the most discretionary content and the least amont of prescribed content will be at the top of the hierarchy.

The preceding theory of basic skills development provides a framework for analyzing and assessing interpersonal competence. The Domain of interpersonal competence emerges as an integral element of the General Landscape of three basic life skills. It is best conceived as one of the three categories of functional competence as illustrated in Figure 13 on p. 31.

Interpersonal competences possess the same characteristics and qualities as the other functional skills. First, they are functional behaviors that can be learned either through formal training in educational institutions or through the accumulation of experience in life activity. Second, they are process skills and, as such, have

figure 13

metaphor of 3 life skills

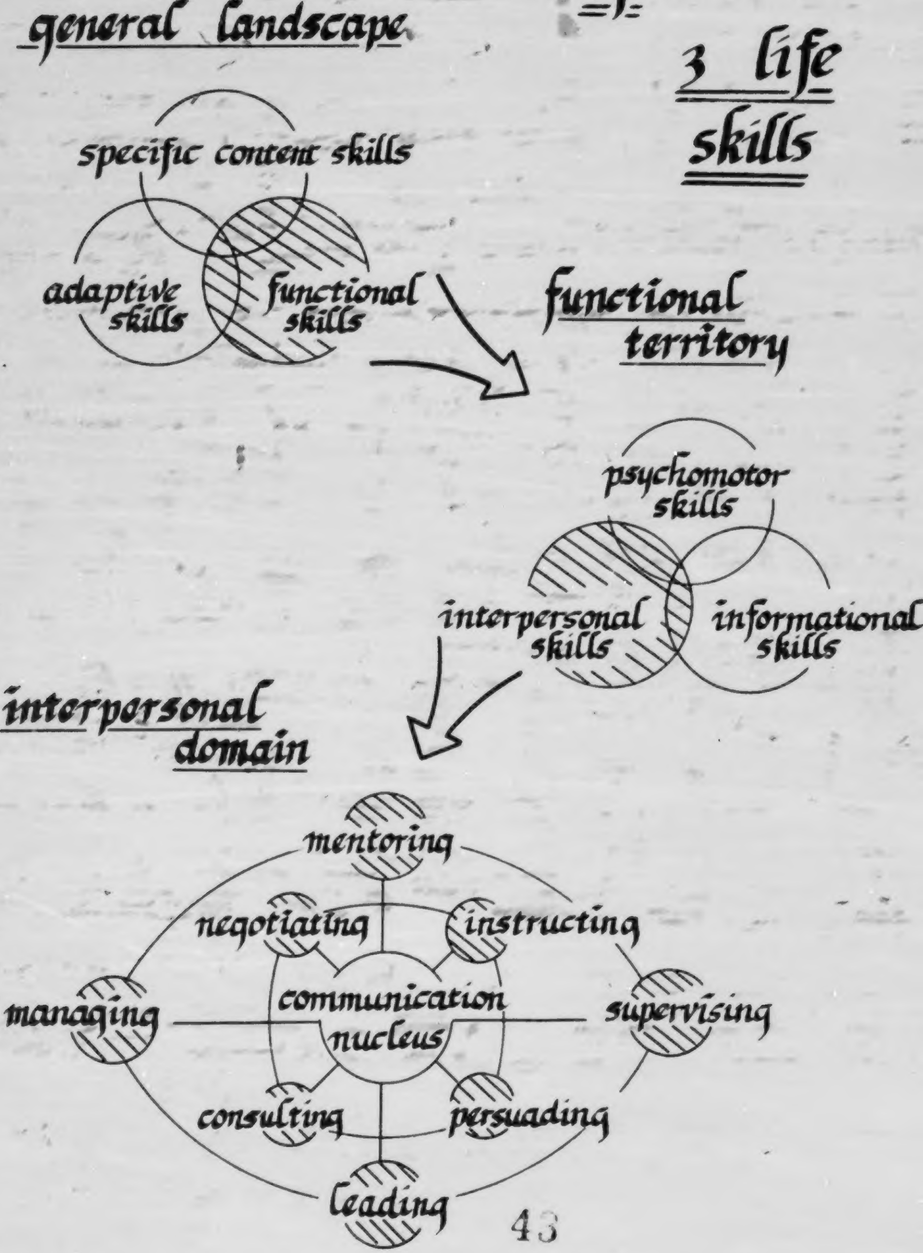
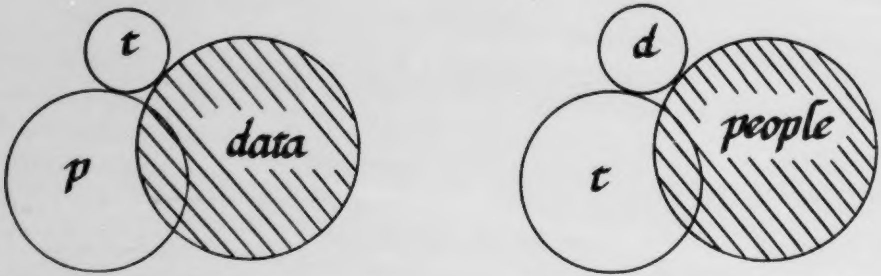

general landscape
specific content skills
adaptive skills
functional skills
functional territory
psychomotor skills
interpersonal skills
informational skills
interpersonal domain
mentoring
negotiating
instructing
managing
communication nucleus
supervising
consulting
persuading
leading

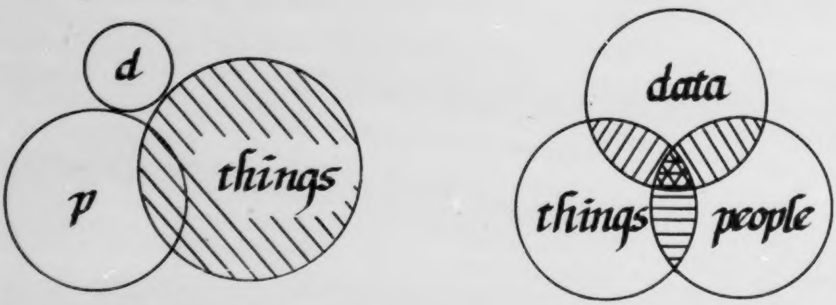
figure 14

examples of functional orientation


t
p
data
d
t
people

a. data-oriented e.g., writer

b. people-oriented e.g., teacher


d
p
things
data
things
people

c. things-oriented e.g., artist

d. diverse-interests e.g., writer-teacher-artist

a measure of *transferability* from one situation to another. And finally, since they are skills, they are instrumental to the problem-solving process.

The degree to which we hold that interpersonal competences are trainable will depend largely upon the degree of specificity that can be applied to the communicative process. Some initial attempts to operationalize the Domain of interpersonal competence into specific behaviors are attached as two appendices to the Inventory of Functional Competences. Appendix A includes a list of descriptive definitions of the eight interpersonal competence clusters, and Appendix B lists specific behaviors for each competence cluster. In the following section, interpersonal competence will be thrown into sharper focus, and its primary components and underlying dynamics will be examined in greater detail.

THE INTERPERSONAL DOMAIN: AN INTERPRETATION

When we introduced the concept of basic interpersonal literacy in Chapter II, we listed three general uses of interpersonal competence; namely,

- *professional* or job-oriented applications such as managing, supervising, and instructing;
- *civic* or community uses such as volunteer work, religious, political and social organizations, etc.; and
- *personal* uses in relationships with friends and family.

In this section we will merge the concept of interpersonal literacy with the skills development framework presented in the preceding section and create a professional or job-oriented model of interpersonal competence. We have chosen the professional category rather than civic or personal uses of interpersonal competence because it is the most likely to include skills and competence clusters generally recognized as college-creditable. We have tried to develop the model, however, in such a way that it can be easily adapted to other uses. In fact, some of the professional interpersonal competence clusters (persuading, for example) are equally applicable to civic and personal situations.

The Communications Nucleus

Sidney Fine's theory of basic skills development emphasizes a hierarchical ordering of functional skills that puts essential communication behaviors near the bottom of the list. In our adaptation of his theory, the communicative behaviors retain their fundamental role, but emerge as a central thread weaving all of the interpersonal skills clusters into a common cloth. The basic model, which we introduced in Chapter II, is conceived as a communications nucleus around which various complex and multidimensional interpersonal competence models can be developed.

The model of this communications nucleus illustrates the process by which individuals—using the intrapersonal skills in the middle ring—interpret, for *self* and *others*, the data included in the core variables, and select appropriate communicative behaviors from the outer ring. These communicative behaviors are, themselves, the basic interpersonal skills which—in various clustered combinations—compose the interpersonal competence necessary to accomplish specified goals.

All that remains before we can proceed to the building of a larger model is to perforate the outer ring of the nucleus so that these changing combinations of skills can be drawn out of the nucleus as competence clusters and applied to changing patterns of interpersonal goals. In the next section we will construct a larger interpersonal model to show some of these patterns in the professional, job-related category. But we want first to reiterate the fact that an infinite variety of communications skills clusters can be drawn through the perforated lining of the nucleus to serve an infinite variety of goals in civic or personal use models.

A Model of Interpersonal Competence

We have selected eight clusters of interpersonal skills for the purposes of illustrating the process by which interpersonal competence is applied. Four of these clusters—persuading, negotiating, consulting, and instructing—are grouped just outside the nucleus as four types of *informing* competences. (See Figure 15.) The other four—mentoring, leading, supervising, and managing—are grouped on an outer ring as four types of *directing* compenteces. Each of the informing competences on the inner ring is connected to the communication nucleus from which appropriate combinations of communications skills can be drawn. Each of the directing competences on the outer ring is connected both to the inner ring of informing competences and to the basic communicative skills nucleus.

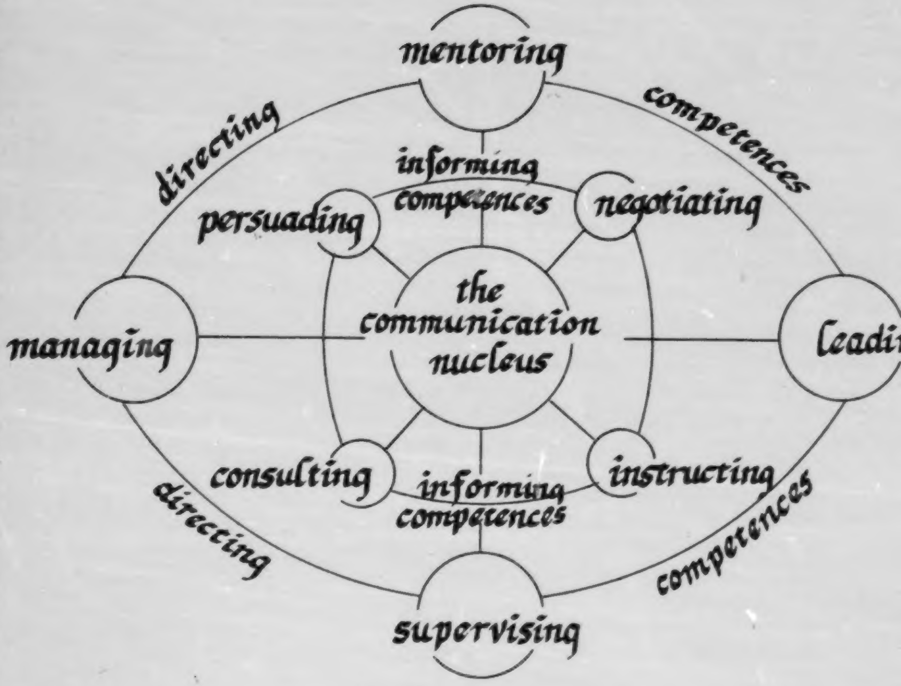
Although the content of this particular model is weighted toward leadership skills and competences, we recognize the importance of *participatory* competence as well. Most of the skills and some of the competence clusters in this model are applicable to a wide range of participation from purely passive assignments or roles to the most active leadership functions. In Appendix D we have included a leaderless group discussion exercise that is based on the work of Bales and others. It is equally applicable to the learning or assessment of leadership or participatory roles. This example is particularly helpful in illustrating the reciprocal (dialogic) nature of the leadership and participatory/maintenance functions in group problem-solving situations.

The Dynamic Model. Figure 15 ia a dynamic version of the model. Imagine that the inner ring of the informing competences is rotating in one direction and the outer ring of the directing competences is rotating in the opposite direction. Each of the eight competence clusters is flexible in specific content, having the capacity to draw on various combinations of basic communicative skills as needed from the nucleus. In addition to this souce of basic communication skills, the directing competences on the outer ring also have access to clusters of informing competences rotating on the inner ring.

As the interpersonal competence requirements change in a particular professional setting, the mix of skills and competences may vary in order to achieve the specific goal or goals being sought. For example, a manager in a large department store may be faced with a variety of problems as the day progresses and will probably need a variety of basic communicative skills and professional competences to solve them. At nine o'clock she may need some basic listening and interviewing skills as she gets information from a salesman about the advantages of a new type of cash register. At ten o'clock she may need some instructional competence as she breaks in a new employee. And during the afternoon in a meeting with union representatives she may need a complex combination of many

figure 15

a model
of
interpersonal competence
dynamic version


mentoring
directing
competences
informing
competences
persuading
negotiating
the
communication
nucleus
managing
Leadi
consulting
informing
competences
instructing
directing
competences
supervising

basic communicative skills along with well-developed negotiating and persuading competences.

While all of these informing and directing competences have professional applications, many of them also relate to the civic and personal categories. For example, managing, leading, and supervising are all necessary functions in many kinds of social, religious, and political organizations. Persuading and negotiating of various types are common requirements in relationships with family and friends, and in such routine daily activities as shopping and making appointments.

Characteristic of the dynamic interpersonal competence model is the continual fluctuation, restructuring, and combining of the competence clusters on both the inner and outer levels. These changing patterns are analogous to the elusive images of a kaleidoscope. Looking through the instrument, one sees shifting patterns of glittering fragments of glass forming one unique combination after another, only to slip away before the eye can fix it. It is this quality of images upon images, and parts forming a continually evolving whole that is the essence of the dynamic interpersonal competence model.

The Static Version of the Model (Figure 16). The static version of the model is composed of the same groups of professional competences and communication skills as the dynamic version. These eight competence clusters are grouped about the communications nucleus in accordance with two principles.

The *first* principle distinguishes between role-dominant skills and person-dominant skills. Those skills that tend to be heavily involved in institutional roles are grouped in the lower left cells of the model. Those skills that tend to require more personal involvement of the role-player, without a necessarily strong institutional role component, are grouped in the upper right cells.

In general, role-dominent skills are carried out with a higher level of functional behaviors specified or prescribed by the institution. Supervising and managing, for example, are often well-defined roles in a variety of organizational settings that may specify many of the characteristic behaviors believed to be important. Person-dominant behaviors, on the other hand, are more generally recognized as requiring a flexible and adaptive performance by the individual for maximum effectiveness. Individuals need to be able to develop and use their own styles for negotiating and persuading. Less can be said in advance about these skills; thus a higher level of discretionary behavior is permitted or required.

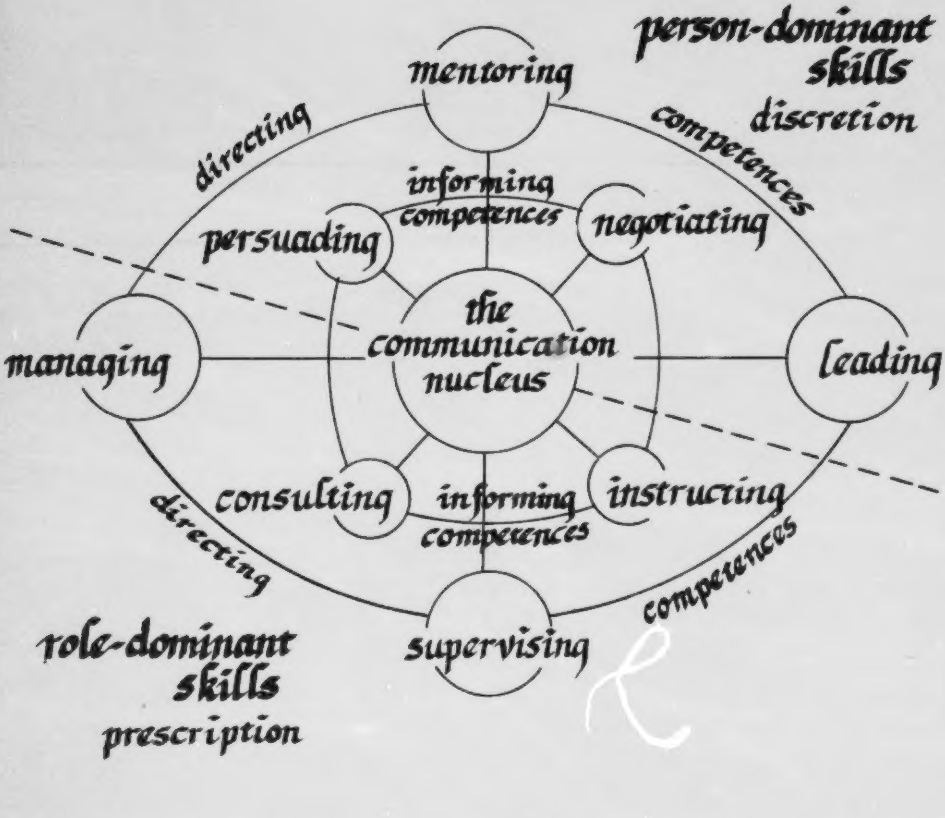
The *second* principle distinguishes between skills as they imply a capacity to influence others by giving directions or by providing information. The skills on the inner level are primarily oriented toward influencing behavior by *informing*, whereas the skills on the outer level are primarily oriented toward influencing behavior by *directing*, commanding, or leading. These two distinctions are useful as tools for broadly classifying the competences of the interpersonal domain—a characteristic impossible to illustrate completely with the dynamic model.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE THEORY AND MODELS

We recognize that, like all taxonomic structures, these fall short of satisfactorily addressing all of the dimensions of this complex area. However, a number of useful implications for the measurement of individual growth are inherent in the frame of reference established by this theory.

figure 16

a model
of
interpersonal competence
static version


person-dominant
skills
discretion
mentoring
directing
competences
informing
competences
persuading
negotiating
managing
the
communication
nucleus
leading
consulting
informing
competences
instructing
directing
competences
supervising
role-dominant
skills
prescription

First, by defining interpersonal competences as functional skills, the analysis narrows the focus to trainable competences that are acquired through education, either traditional or experiential. The more general adaptive skills are presumed to be transmitted by church or family and usually are not recognized as college-creditable.

Second, the analysis leads naturally to a metric for measuring the functional development of an individual's interpersonal abilities. This functional interpersonal development can be defined as the ability to understand and utilize increasingly more complex combinations of competences in the service of specific goals. An important step in this direction is taken through the identification of prescribed and discretionary behaviors. These concepts have important implications for defining levels of complexity both within and between the competence clusters, and thus for developing institutional standards for awarding credit.

Third, the framework pinpoints the pivotal nature of the communications skills. In contrast to Fine's hierarchic arrangement (Figure 1, p. 7), we see communication skills as a common foundation for all interpersonal competences. This serves two purposes: (a) it permits evaluations of interpersonal competence by behavioral samples of the communication process; and (b) it suggests that these evaluations will take place in an appropriate context determined by the specific goal or purpose of the skill or competence cluster under consideration.

Finally, the consideration of interpersonal competence in the context of the larger framework of people, data, and things offers important insights. It conceptualizes both persons and roles in terms of these three categories of functional competence and offers a basis for weighing them. This analysis lends itself to considerations of the matching of people to roles and vice versa. When used in combination with the concepts of behavioral prescription or discretion, it can facilitate a number of decisions about the people, data, and things structure in its implicit recognition that many roles have significant interpersonal aspects even where their primary content is directed toward data or things.

IV. Experiential Learning Environments

In studying experiential learning situations, our objectives are to set the stage for assessing the interpersonal competences that may have been (for prior learning) or may be (for sponsored learning) acquired or enhanced by various kinds of experience. Because we are interested in measuring learning rather than experience, the task is extremely complex. The variations in learning outcomes for two persons with a similar experience may be substantial: virtually nothing at all for one; and the acquisition of college-creditable interpersonal competence for the other. Similarly a person may gain nothing from a potential learning experience at one time, but may acquire effective new skills from the same experience at another time. Our focus, then, is on experience as a means to an end—learning—but we do not presume that experience necessarily leads to learning.

Among the critical variables which may determine whether, how much, and what kind of learning is gained from experience are personality characteristics, attitudes, objectives, the type and intensity of participation, preparation for the experience, supervision, feedback, and timing and duration of the experience. These variables, and others, are important factors whether the educational problem is the assessment of prior learning or the maximization of sponsored learning. The two main sections of this chapter, "Categories of Potential Learning Environments" and "Critical Variables in Experiential Learning," are perhaps more relevant in planning sponsored programs than they are in measuring prior learning. It may be helpful, however, even when the opportunity to select and manipulate experiences is already past, to evaluate prior learning within the framework of the possibilities which attended it.

CATEGORIES OF POTENTIAL LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

There are four basic potential learning environments in each person's experience: personal life, community participation, work, and formal classroom education. We have defined the first three as "experiential" and are not concerned here with the fourth category, but rather with ways in which its objectives may be achieved or enriched by learning outcomes from the other three.

Although these three experiential categories overlap, it is worthwhile to treat them separately as long as we recognize that at points they converge.

Personal Life

The range of interpersonal learning opportunities in this category varies from very low for some persons who lead solitary and isolated lives to very high for other persons who are constantly in touch with many people. Interpersonal competences can be acquired or sharpened experientially in virtually any living situation involving at least one other person—in competitive sports or games; in avocational activities or hobbies pursued with others; in conducting such routine business as shopping, responding to solicitors, dealing with maintenance and service personnel, etc.; and in traveling, either within or outside one's own country.

Such learning situations may be intense and cover a long period of time, such as rearing a large family or residing abroad for several decades. Or, at the other extreme, interpersonal contacts in one's daily life may be brief and superficial, such as buying a ticket to a movie or getting a wrong number when making a telephone call.

Much of what may be learned in one's personal life is so common and routine that it is almost universal and would rarely be considered for academic recognition. When the experience is intense or unusual enough to result in academic learning, it is usually only after the fact that credit is sought. One important exception is intercultural travel and residence for which credit is sometimes sought retroactively and sometimes planned as part of a sponsored program. In either case, it is important to recognize the differences between *experience* that is relatively easy to describe and to measure (e.g., 12 years of residence in Japan) and *learning* that is relatively difficult to assess (e.g., How much ability to understand Japanese people was developed during the residence in Japan?).

Since many people with decades of life experiences still lack well-developed interpersonal competence, it is clear that there is no necessary correlation between experience and learning. Personal life—home, recreation, avocation, travel—is an important potential learning environment for interpersonal competences, but, like the other categories to be discussed in the remainder of this section, the actual learning outcomes depend on the several critical variables in experiential learning, which are discussed later in this chapter.

Community (organizational) Life

A second major constellation of potential interpersonal learning environments stems from participation in the various aspects of community life. Religious, political, social, and cultural organizations, and various kinds of interest groups provide opportunities for participation at numerous levels and in many different capacities.

In their book *A Guide To Participation*, John Bollens and Dale Marshall[15] identify and discuss degrees of participation ranging from simply "exposing oneself to stimuli" to "seeking and holding leadership positions." They stress the important educational potential of participation with respect to interpersonal and other competences, and they call attention to recent trends toward greater participation in community activities by a wider range of socioeconomic groups.

Both by amount and type of activity the range of individual participation varies from zero for nonjoiners to full-time leadership and administration for very active people. Again, however, it is necessary to stress the fact that organizational participation provides *potential* learning opportunities in which it is easier to document experience (e.g., 14 years as chairperson of the county central committee) than it is to assess interpersonal learning (e.g., the acquisition of leadership and management skills, ability to negotiate, etc.).

Work

Work assignments, both paid and volunteer, provide a major source of experiential opportunities for learning interpersonal competences. Work experience is frequently cited in requests for evaluation of prior learning and is the basic ingredient in such sponsored programs as cooperative education (alternate periods of work and study) and fieldwork or internship programs (combined classroom and off-campus learning.)

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[15] John C. Bollens and Dale R. Marshall, *A Guide To Participation*, pp. 2-4.

As we have seen in Chapter III, Fine and Wiley,[16] in their studies of functional job analysis, have pointed out that three essential aspects of work activity are level, orientation, and prescription/discretion. "Level" is the measure of the relative difficulty of the work, the ability level it demands. For example, merely conveying information to people is, as a rule, relatively simple, whereas trying to persuade them to believe and act upon the information may be a very complex assignment. "Orientation" is a measure of the proportional involvement of a work assignment with people, with data, or with things. "Prescription/discretion" are related to level and refer to the complexity of the worker's task, ranging from much prescription and little discretion, at the simplest level, to little prescription and much discretion at the most complex level.

All three of these measures may be important in determining the interpersonal learning potential of work assignments. In general, the more complex the level of the work, the greater the learning potential; the more oriented toward people rather than data or things, the greater the opportunity for developing interpersonal competence. Furthermore, the more discretion there is for the worker, the greater will be the potential for learning interpersonal competences.

Learning, however, is acquired by individuals. It is much more important to find the proper balance of level, orientation, and prescription/description for each individual than to develop standardized learning environments on the questionable assumption that they will maximize interpersonal learning opportunities equally for all persons. A study of 25 actual cases (Appendix C) confirms the conclusion that, depending on a number of environmental variables, one student may learn more as an active participant in an assignment involving considerable discretion, while another may learn more as an observer with no other assigned responsibilities.

Probably the most generally useful of these three concepts is that of "orientation," which can be applied not only to the analysis of a job but also to the characteristics of an individual personality, and, finally, to particular personalities within specific job environments. For example, the overall analysis of a particular task may show an orientation that is 40 percent people, 40 percent data, and 20 percent things. This may be an effective interpersonal learning situation for an individual whose preferences coincide 40-40-20, and a poor learning situation for an individual whose personality characteristics and attitudes reflect an interest pattern of 80-10-10.

Finally, neither tasks nor people can be categorized as constant qualities. Within a work unit that is oriented generally 40-40-20, there may be seasonal or other variations, and within individuals there may be significant variations in their orientation toward people, data, and things depending on their recent experience, their current interests, etc. In summary, the people-data-things orientation, both of the work situations and of the individual worker, will show both a certain stability and a certain variability. The utility of a work experience as a source for the learning of interpersonal compentences can be ultimately judged only in relationship to specific individuals and with a consideration of the critical variables affecting their academic readiness and ability.

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[16] Sidney A. Fine and Wretha W. Wiley, *An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis*, pp. 78-79.

CRITICAL VARIABLES IN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

There are advantages and disadvantages to experiential learning. Two major advantages, in comparison with classroom learning, are that experiential learning environments can be more easily selected to fit individual circumstances and that most interpersonal skills can be more easily learned experientially. Some of the critical variables that have a bearing on the selection of learning environments are discussed in this section. Administrators and faculty members can maximize their services to experiential education students by developing policies and procedures that emphasize consideration of these important elements in the student's learning programs.

Individual Goals[17]

In selecting a site for experiential learning, the single most important item to be considered is the individual student's goals. As obvious as this statement may seem, the goals question is a frequently neglected element in the learning process. It is treated here at greater length than any of the other variables because it offers the best opportunity to help administrators, faculty, and students to find the right fit between the interpersonal learning objectives discussed in Chapter III and the interpersonal learning situations identified in this chapter.

The goals of individual students are composed of two major parts: *personal values* that reflect an individual constellation of characteristics, attitudes, and experiences; and *career values* that, to some degree at least, can be described in clusters of skills needed by all who enter a particular career. To facilitate the discussion of personal and career values, both important determinants of educational goals, we must first consider the concept of a basic package of interpersonal skills common to virtually all individuals and all careers.

The Basic Communication Skills Package. Whether an individual lives alone or in a group, in a conventional marriage or some other relationship, with children or childless, is old or young, male or female, sedentary or peripatetic, a happy and utilitarian adjustment to the existence of other human beings suggests the cultivation of certain basic communication skills. A minimum list includes the components of interpersonal literacy described in Chapters II and III—sending and receiving accurate communications (verbal and nonverbal); recognizing the role of conditions that moderate the expression of affect; and responding effectively to sociocultural variables that influence interpersonal relationships.

Similarly whether a person works as a lawyer, psychotherapist, secretary, or grocery clerk, these basic communication skills are common requisites for success in most all careers which are people-oriented. The most basic interpersonal literacy may not, by itself, be college-creditable. Yet it is the foundation (the nucleus in Figure 15, p. 35, and Figure 16, p. 37, in Chapter III) on which complex combinations of interpersonal competences are built. Complex activities like managing, mentoring, and couseling, for example, all depend on basic communication skills, such as tact, listening, and empathizing, just as creative writing, literary criticism, and debating depend on basic language skills, such as spelling, sentence construction, and enunciation.

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[17] For a discussion of the importance of clearly defined student goals see Arthur Chickering, "Institutional Objectives and Student Development in College," pp. 290-293.

The Student's Personal Values. It is both essential and very difficult to identify students' personal values and to articulate them to the various aspects of the learning environment. It is essential because there is a strong correlation between objectives and learning outcomes. It is difficult because in some ways only the student can finally identify such values accurately, yet many students are either unclear about their interpersonal values or reluctant to share them with advisors or instructors.

In the summary of procedures following this discussion of learning situations, we emphasize the importance of the student autobiography as a first step in planning experiential education programs. The purpose of the autobiography is to bring into clear focus the student's conception of three things: (1) Self-image—What am I like right now in my relationships with other human beings? (2) Ideal image—How would I like to be, and what skills would I like to have, in my relationships with other people? (3) An educational plan—How can I bring the self-image and ideal self-image together by acquiring new interpersonal competences and sharpening the existing ones?

In general, most of the personal values of students are related to acquiring or sharpening the basic skills that compose interpersonal literacy, whereas their career values involve job-related combinations of the clusters of skills illustrated in Figure 15, p. 35, Chapter III.

For example, one student considers himself to be a poor listener. He knows he has a tendency to interrupt others, or to daydream while they are talking. He is often embarrassed by criticism because he fails to get accurate messages from his wife, or teacher, or work supervisor. He wants to sharpen his listening skills because he thinks it would make him a happier, more appreciated, and more likeable person. Another student realizes that she is too possessive in her close relationships with other people. She has been unable to develop durable, intimate friendships because she doesn't feel at ease as part of a group. She wishes that "nonpossessive warmth" were one of her basic personality characteristics. In addition, both the poor listener and the possessive friend realize that they are too quick to express anger. They'd both like to sharpen their skills in responding equably to people who upset them.

Putting these, and other, personal values of the two students into a common context with their career-related values is vital to the planning of a successful learning experience. If the learning goals are explicit and understood by all parties—the student, the instructor, and the learning supervisor—the chances of success are increased.

The Student's Career Values. Students' conceptions of their career values vary from the specific intention to occupy a particular position to almost total indecision about their relative orientation to people, data, or things. For the more decided student, both the choice of an experiential learning environment and the specification of interpersonal competence goals may be relatively easy. The task is to find an apprenticeship where the conditions fit the person. For the more uncertain student, the problems are more difficult. A primary goal is probably career exploration. It may not even be known whether any additional interpersonal competences are needed, let alone what they are or how they would be used.

Such examples, however, are extreme. Even the most decided student may eventually have more than one career. And even the most uncertain student can probably identify clusters of interpersonal competences that will be essential assets in almost any career. Thus, whether the primary purpose of choosing an experiential learning environment is the development of specific content skills as an apprentice, or simply the exploration of possible careers, it is usually possible and desirable to identify functional interpersonal learning goals. It would be difficult to overemphasize the importance in the learning process of clearly formulated educational goals that reflect explicitly expressed personal and career values.

What experiences are critical for learning? There is no simple answer. Although he was addressing his remarks toward the broad subject of liberal arts education rather than interpersonal competence specifically, David Truman's cogent observation in an editorial written for the *Chronicle of Higher Education* is helpful on this subject:

> Almost any subject can be so taught and studied as to assist acquisition of the liberal arts—and, I must add, any subject can be so taught and studied that it makes no such contribution. The test of substance and of pedagogy is relative effectiveness in developing genuine literacy, characterized by precision and range in language and thought.[18]

Similarly, a wide variety of learning situations may be utilized toward the development of a wide variety of interpersonal competences by students with a wide variety of personal and career values. And almost any student can "succeed" at learning almost nothing from almost any experience. The most critical variable is *intent.* A student who has identified personal and career values and has a clear perception of the interpersonal competences essential to those values can gain much learning from relatively little experience. A student who has not clarified his or her education goals can, unfortunately, accumulate years of potential learning experience with a bare minimum of actual learning outcomes.

Type and Intensity of Participation

Learning from an organizational or work situation may vary from merely being an occasional and casual contributor to a routine activity for a brief time, all the way to being fully in charge of a complex operation over an extended period of time. Depending on the status of the other variables (particularly the values discussed in the preceding section), the interpersonal learning outcomes may be either quite significant or virtually zero at either end of the participatory spectrum.

For example, as part of an assignment in a traditional on-campus course, a student visited an adoption agency for one afternoon and observed a woman who was interviewing prospective parents. Her learning objective was to acquire interviewing skills. Assessing her experience afterwards, she cited two learning outcomes: It is important to know when to be quiet and let the other person talk; it is important to be prepared in advance with questions to ask. In both cases part of the learning outcome was the result of observing a poor performance. The student, in fact, learned by a bad example.

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[18] David B. Truman (President, Mount Holyoke College), "The Necessity of High Literacy," p. 24.

In contrast, another student (#18 in Appendix C), who participated full time in a close apprenticeship to a designer over a period of months, reported no interpersonal learning outcomes although her experience included extensive interviewing and negotiating with clients. The learning site was excellent for the development of certain functional interpersonal skills, but the student's objective was exclusively in the specific content area—to learn about the technical aspects of designing. Dealing with clients and co-workers was incidental to this student's purpose and was not utilized for interpersonal competence training.

Because the type, intensity, and intent of participation in potential learning activities are all critical variables, it is always important to distinguish between experience and learning. "Credit for experience" is a misnomer. Credit is granted for "learning" that may result when the type and intensity of experiences are utilized effectively toward the achievement of *specified learning objectives.*

Advance Preparation for Experiential Learning

The appropriate amount and type of advance preparation for learning from experience depends on at least four variables: the type of learning outcome sought, the type of experience to be utilized, the previous experience and abilities of the student, and the student's values and attitudes. For some students, it may appear to be virtually impossible to gain much from preparatory reading or lectures, because the basic minimum of motivation is absent. Immediate immersion in a field experience may be the only effective source of motivation, even if the learning potential is limited by the consequent lack of preparation. For others, either already sufficiently motivated to put substantial efforts into background study, or having a natural preference for a methodical step-by-step approach, a full term or more of preparatory study may be the most effective approach.

Institutional practice in requiring preparation varies considerably. A substantial number of postsecondary institutions decline to grant any credit for prior learning gained from experience before an educational plan was approved by the institution. At the other extreme, a growing number of institutions have established assessment programs that strongly encourage students to present, for possible credit, evidence of learning acquired from any and every type of life experience. Nearly all postsecondary institutions have programs of sponsored experiential learning. The preparatory phase in such sponsored experiential learning programs varies from a simple petition by the student to a full term or more of required formal planning. (See examples attached as Appendices E and F.)

The advantages of careful planning are clear: the learning environment can be utilized more effectively by the student with clearly specified objectives and an understanding of the opportunities and limitations of a particular learning situation. The disadvantages are also clear: some students are so lacking in motivation prior to the experiential phase that they get virtually nothing from enforced preparation. For them the field experience is the essential prerequisite to learning—either in the classroom or from further experience.

Where the primary purpose of experience is the exploration of a possible career interest or the development of some degree of motivation to pursue further study, it might be appropriate to encourage noncredit experiential learning arrangements until the student either decides to abandon the subject or to return to the campus ready and motivated to undertake the prescribed preparatory phase.

Finally, there are significant advantages to concurrent campus/field programs in which the two activities can be combined to serve individual needs. This is what, in fact, occurs in the examples reported in Appendix C. Some students actually begin their field experience during the preparatory term; others continue to be primarily campus-based throughout the two terms with relatively minor forays into the field for observation or interviews.

Supervision and Feedback

In some sense, all experiential learning, except the prior learning which may have resulted from unplanned educational experience, is a concurrent campus/field arrangement. Sponsored programs in virtually all cases involve continued contact with the campus by the student in the field. The type of contact may include any or all of the following:

The student

- reports periodically to the faculty advisor by mail or phone,
- visits the campus periodically for consultation with the faculty advisor,
- attends a campus seminar concurrently with field experience.

The field supervisor (nonacademic)

- agrees to report periodically to the faculty advisor by mail or phone.

The faculty advisor

- visits the experiential learning site periodically,
- supervises regularly or continually on site in addition to, or instead of, the nonacademic field supervision.

The pattern, or combination of supervisory arrangements, necessarily varies according to the location and type of field activity, available financial resources, and the preferences of the three parties: campus, field agency, and student. Probably the most difficult problem is to develop an effective role for nonacademic field supervisors. The difficulty flows from the fact that educational aspects of supervision may be neither a part of the supervisor's paid assignment nor an area in which she or he is sufficiently trained. Some campuses have effectively resolved this problem by negotiating formal contract arrangements with the field agency. These contracts specify the responsibilities of each party, and provide, as a part of the campus responsibility, adequate instructions or manuals of procedure for the supervisor's use. In most cases it is possible to identify enough mutual advantage to form the basis for an acceptable agreement.

One of the vital roles of supervision is to provide feedback for the student during the field experience. Timely feedback often can add new dimensions of learning to the experience, and sometimes is a necessary precaution to avoid serious learning failures. For example, one student (see case #15 in Appendix C), whose experiential learning site was in the administration of a campus orientation program, learned the hard way that too little supervision and too little feedback can lead to negative results. He was left almost entirely on his own to organize and administer the program for orienting new students to the campus counseling services. His unrealistic estimates about the availability of essential resources, including his own time, led him to such a serious overcommitment that he finally had to go to the counseling center himself for therapy. Even an occasional report to an experienced supervisor might well have provided enough feedback to correct the problem early in the term and to assist him in maximizing the learning opportunities which he lost when the program had to be curtailed.

Timing and Amount

When, in a student's educational career, should experiential learning be undertaken? A part of this question has already been addressed above in a discussion of the question of advance preparation: How much, if any, academic preparation should precede field experience? There are additional questions of timing, however, and it is important to determine whether field experience should occur early or late in the student's education, and how much of the total learning package should be attempted in field settings.

Again, the answer necessarily varies with the subject and with the individual student. Students in departments of history, for example, may generally be better off to postpone a working term in a museum until the senior year or later after assimilating appropriate background information and studying some principles of historiography. In contrast, students in business courses may more profitably spend one or more terms on-the-job early in their careers as a means of developing a framework of interests and of questions as a base for the later acquisition of information. On the other hand, a particular individual student may develop an interest in, and a foundation for, the study of history by exposure to relatively prescribed historiographic activities as a volunteer or paid worker in a museum even while still in high school. And some students of business may profit from postponing a term of on-the-job experience until the senior year when classroom learning will have laid a solid foundation for taking a job in which considerable discretion can be permitted.

Timing may have important implications for the kind of role that can be played. Particularly with respect to interpersonal competences, it is clear that the learning potential is maximized when the discretionary leeway is greater. One of the common pitfalls in experiential learning environments is a bad "fit" between the student's learning needs and the field agency's work needs. The student needs a job with more discretion, but the agency needs a worker to perform more prescribed tasks. For example (#19, Appendix C), a student assigned to an alternative elementary school planned the experience as a learning environment for developing interpersonal competence in dealing with exceptionally bright children and their parents. But the field supervisor (a teacher in the elementary school) was primarily interested in the arrangement as a way of getting some relief from time-consuming routine duties. Entering marks in the grade book or correcting true-false tests were barren learning environments for the student interested in developing interpersonal competences.

Because of this potential problem it is often better to schedule field experience learning late in the student's education and thus take full advantage of the greater discretion which is possible with more background. Early or late, however, this difficulty again underlines the importance of a formal contract arrangement between campus and field agency to assure the campus that the student will be given both ample discretion and adequate supervision and to assure the agency that the student will have both ample preparation and the necessary prerequisite competences and attitudes.

Some institutions prefer paid internships over volunteer jobs on the grounds that the commitment on both sides is more serious and thus more likely to be mutually beneficial. Often, however, for financial reasons this is not possible. It is clear, however, that both paid and nonpaid field experiences can be arranged to the significant advantage of campus, student, and agency.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

At least eleven variables affecting the experiential learning of interpersonal competences have been identified and discussed at some length in this chapter. Experiential learning situations may:

• Be sponsored and planned	or may be assessed later to determine prior learning.
• Be paid	or volunteer.
• Be for credit	or noncredit.
• Be closely supervised	or involve little or only infrequent contact between campus and agency.
• Come early	or late in the student's education.
• Be a major part of the student's program	or last only a few days or weeks.
• Attract fully committed students, seeking formal apprenticeships	or be sampled by uncertain students still in the process of choosing a career.
• Afford wide discretion for the student in a responsible role	or merely provide the student with opportunities for observation, or performance of prescribed tasks.
• Require extensive preparatory work	or be available without stated prerequisites.
• Offer opportunity for continuous feedback	or run their course with little or no contemporary evaluation.

• Involve primarily, or even exclusively, interpersonal competence	or may only incidentally offer the opportunity to develop functional interpersonal competence because the experience is with data or things instead of people.

These eleven elements, and others not listed here, may be combined in various ways to fit different purposes that the campus, student, and external agency may work jointly to serve. There are few situations, however, in which there is no opportunity at all for the acquisition or sharpening of interpersonal competences. In fact, interpersonal competence is peculiarly dependent on experiential learning modes. It is characterized by very strong behavioral and affective learning components that appear to be facilitated in experiential learning environments. Skills in relationship with other human beings are difficult, perhaps impossible, to develop through exclusive use of informational learning methods such as reading and listening to lectures.

There is a vast potential for major educational advances through the utilization of experiential learning situations for interpersonal competence development. Our discussion strongly suggests that there is no one best way to maximize interpersonal learning for all institutions, all students, or all kinds of experiential environments. Nevertheless, it seems possible and appropriate to suggest procedures that may be helpful in finding the right combination of variables for meeting individual needs. That is the purpose of Chapter V which follows.

V. Checklist Of Procedures For Administering Sponsored Programs Of Experiential Learning

The purpose of this chapter is to offer an annotated checklist of procedures that may be useful to faculty members and administrators in setting up a sponsored learning program. Although our subject is interpersonal competence, these procedures may be helpful in developing sponsored programs in other subject areas. In addition to the relevance of this checklist for sponsored programs, it also identifies characteristics of learning experiences in the assessment of prior learning.[19]

This chapter provides a link between the discussion of learning goals and learning environments (Chapters III and IV) and the assessment of learning outcomes (Chapters VI and VII). In a sense, it is a brief do-it-yourself manual for developing sponsored experiential learning programs that can accomplish the following six purposes:

1. Identification of student's learning goals in the area of interpersonal competence.
2. Development of individualized learning plans for the achievement of these goals.
3. Selection of experiential learning environments appropriate to individual learning goals.
4. Specification of methods and procedures for completing the education plan.
5. Preparation for evaluation of learning outcomes.
6. Development of institutional guidelines for granting credit.

In each case where an item on the checklist is covered or referred to in previous chapters or in the Appendices, the reference is included in parentheses.

IDENTIFICATION OF STUDENT GOALS

1. Autobiography. Often the best way to begin a formualtion of learning objectives is to ask the student to write an "autobiography" in which both personal and career-related values are identified (Chapter IV, pp. 43-44). Higher degrees of motivation and more meaningful learning are likely to result when personal and career values are explicitly identified as a foundation for the achievement of carefully formulated educational goals. Several examples of approaches to the task of values clarification are included in the *Student Guide*, which is a companion to this *Handbook*.

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[19] This chapter is devoted specifically to the administration of sponsored experiential learning programs. For further discussion of sponsored programs, see John Duley and Sheila Gordon, *College-sponsored Experiential Learning–A CAEL Handbook*, and Hadley Nesbitt, *College-sponsored Experiential Learning–A CAEL Student Guide*. Those interested in establishing new programs, either prior or sponsored learning, may wish to consult the *CAEL Faculty Development Resource Book* for further information and suggestions. For a complete analysis of problems and procedures in the assessement of prior learning see Joan Knapp, *Assessing Prior Learning–A CAEL Handbook* and Aubrey Forrest, *Assessing Prior Learning–A CAEL Student Guide*.

2. Interpersonal Competence as a Personal Value. Before students select specific interpersonal competences as learning objectives, they may benefit from a thorough discussion of their individual orientations toward people, data, and things (Chapter III, p. 24 and Figure 13, p. 31, and Figure 14, p. 32). In relating the choice of interpersonal competence learning objectives to personal values, the student should try with the help of a faculty advisor to develop an individual interpersonal competence needs profile as it reflects the various components of interpersonal literacy (Chapter II, p. 8; Chapter III, p. 30; Figure 3, p. 14; Figure 13, p. 31; and Figure 14, p. 32). In relating the choice of interpersonal competence learning objectives to career values, the student and advisor should try to identify the interpersonal competence clusters most relevant to the student's general choice of career field (Figure 15, p. 35; Figure 16, p. 37; Figure 1, p. 7, and Appendices A and B).

DEVELOPMENT OF INDIVIDUALIZED LEARNING PLANS

1. Behaviorally Specific Objectives. Once the student's interpersonal competence goals have been identified in general terms, such as "leadership, management, counseling," etc., the development of a more specific educational plan can begin. The concepts of developmental and functional growth (Chapter III, p. 22) and level (Chapter III, p. 33 and Chapter IV, p. 41) make it possible to identify degrees of competence within each of the skill clusters. Writing specific learning objectives not only facilitates the development of effective learning plans, but also paves the way for the evaluation and assessment of learning outcomes.

2. Previous Academic Records. Along with the interpersonal competence needs profile and specific interpersonal learning objectives, each student's educational plan must be developed with full knowledge of all previous academic transcripts. This not only eliminates the dangers of duplication of both learning and credit, but also helps in discovering useful foundations and guideposts for organizing the educational plan.

3. Balancing Traditional and Experiential Education. As early in the process as possible, the educational plan should include a decision about the timing, the amount, and the mix of experiential and traditional classroom learning (Chapter IV, p. 44).

SELECTION OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

1. Availability of Quality Learning Environments. Because of the difficulty of finding a good fit between student goals and appropriate learning environments, it is wise to develop as large a pool of alternate environments as possible. In addition to any brokerage service which may be available to arrange contact between the campus and the outside agency, students should be urged to make contacts on their own and to propose alternatives.

2. Matching Student Learning Objectives to Learning Environments. It is helpful to apply the people-data-things model in order to maximize the mutuality of objectives between student and field agency. Not only should the general "people" orientation of the environment be compatible to that of the student, but it should be determined that the chosen environment will provide the opportunity for development of the specific interpersonal competences that the student needs.

Careful attention must also be given to finding the right fit between the student's need for, and the agency's willingness to grant, a degree of discretion which will permit achievement of the student's learning objectives (Chapter III, p. 30).

3. Supervision and Access. There is a necessarily close relationship between the methods selected for implementing the educational plan (see the following section on methods and procedures) and the conditions of the learning environment. If the amount of supervision is important to the success of the learning plan, it should be determined in advance that the site supervisor is willing and able to undertake the desired amount. If, for supervisory or for other purposes, it is desirable for the faculty member to have access to the learning environment, it should be determined in advance that this is compatible with agency policies and procedures (Chapter IV, p. 41).

4. Contracts and Contingencies. Many of the vital steps in the process may be covered by a formal contract (Appendix G). Contracts should include, for the protection of all three parties, contingency clauses to cover the possibility that either the agency or the student may be unable to fulfill the agreement.

SPECIFICATION OF METHODS AND PROCEDURES

1. Preparation for Experiential Learning. Because of the wide range of previous experience that students bring to the threshold of field learning programs, the campus must offer a wide range of preparatory options. Some students, for certain experiential learning environments, may require no seminar, or even formal course work.

In each case there should be agreement between the campus and the field agency about the kind and amount of preparation necessary and who is responsible for providing it (Chapter IV, p. 45).

2. The Role of the Field Supervisor. Depending on the nature of the experience and on the faculty advisor's access to the student and the learning environment, the role of the field supervisor may be one of the most crucial elements in the success of experiential learning programs. If the experience is heavily people-oriented and if the faculty advisor cannot see the student regularly, the supervisor may be the primary source of both instruction and evaluation. In any case, except where the faculty member is actually on the site most of the time, it is very important for the campus to establish substantial and effective communication with the field supervisor on at least four subjects.

1. The supervisor should have a copy of the student's educational plan specifying the intended learning objectives of the experience.
2. The supervisor should know what kinds and amounts of feedback the student needs during the experience (Chapter IV, p. 44).

3. There should be agreement between campus and field agency concerning the kind and amount of communication needed between the faculty member and the supervisor during the experience.
4. The supervisor's role in the postevaluation of the experience should be specified in advance. (See the following section on Preparation for Evaluation of Learning Outcomes.).

In all of these areas the campus should be prepared, when necessary, to provide the supervisor with guidelines, procedures, and any other information necessary to insure effective learning and accurate assessment of student learning outcomes.

3. The Role of the Faculty Member. In addition to the preparatory functions noted above and the evaluation functions described below, the faculty advisor has a vital role to play during the field experience. If the experiential learning is an integral part of a course, there may be weekly seminars or lectures. If it is an independent study arrangement, there may be assigned readings and regular consultation. At the very least, in most cases the student will be preparing a final report of some type, and occasional consultation or progress reports should be arranged.

PREPARATION FOR EVALUATION OF LEARNING OUTCOMES

Evaluation of learning outcomes achieved through experiential means is the subject of the remainder of this *Handbook*. Regardless of the combination of assessment techniques that may be use, however, some important preparatory steps are vital to its success. Each of the participants in the process can contribute to effective assessment in various ways.

Participants in the Assessment Process

The Student. In virtually all cases, some participation by the student is a helpful element in effective assessment. Preparation for self-evaluation should precede the beginning of the experience (in fact, it should be a part of the formal educational plan), and the student should be at work throughout the process developing a portfolio for final evaluation.

Agency Supervisor. If the nonacademic supervisor is being relied on to assist in the evaluation process, it is important to provide the agency with information in advance about the types of evidence that will be helpful to the evaluators.

The Faculty Member. It is normally the faculty advisor who ultimately proposes evaluation in terms of grades and number of credits earned or specific competences certified. In preparation for this function, the faculty member must insure that all the relevant evidence is being collected by the student and the supervisor, and that it will be available in the form and amount and at the time it is needed in order to permit effective assessment (Chapter VI).

Types of Evaluative Evidence

In deciding what types of evidence can and should be collected for evaluation purposes, it is helpful for the faculty member and the student to study in advance the discussions of assessment techniques included in Chapter VI of this *Handbook* and in Chapter IV of the *Student Guide*.

Classwork. In situations where periodic class sessions are being held, the traditional techniques may be used (e.g., papers, oral presentations, class discussions, etc.), provided that the particular competences being learned are assessable by these methods. Interpersonal learning is weighted heavily in the affective and behavioral learning areas and may not be readily evaluated by traditional methods.

Logs or Diaries. Daily or weekly records kept by the student can, if they are stated in quite specific terms, be rich sources of evidence both for the student's self-evaluation and for the faculty member's use.

Reports. Periodic reports by the field supervisor are helpful, particularly if the faculty member provides a format which will help the supervisor to know what kind of evidence is needed.

DEVELOPING INSTITUTIONAL GUIDELINES FOR GRANTING CREDIT

This type of crediting process is a judgmental procedure, and the judgments are summaries of some very abstract appraisals. No simple tally sheet can measure accurately the quality of an experience or the amount of credit to be awarded. However, some sort of formal institutional statement that reviews the concept of the creditable levels of performance is not only possible but necessary. This document should avoid the language of a specific procedural manual, and it should reflect the philosophy underlying the institutional practice of granting credit for learning experiences.

Examples of course objectives and requirements in the Appendices suggest some alternate ways of evaluation for granting credit in sponsored learning programs.

VI. ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES

The process of assessment has a central role in experiential education. It brings together a number of different aspects of the educational process. It establishes and validates the learning, providing a kind of common ground on which to compare the outcomes of quite different experiences. As such, it is a vital part of the administrative function of an experiential program. A good assessment program can contribute to a smooth overall operation. These administrative aspects of assessment are, of course, as relevant in the area of interpersonal competence as they are in other areas.

But there is a special quality to the assessment of interpersonal skills; more so than in other areas, the very processes of assessment are in themselves educational. Students can learn about interpersonal competence from the effort to demonstrate or validate it. A sound assessment program will recognize this aspect and will encourage students to view assessment in the context of self-development as much as, if not more than, in the context of course credit. It will recognize that there is a general importance to interpersonal behavior in life. There may be variation in interest in learning about history or music; but interpersonal skill interests virtually everyone.

In part, this special quality of interpersonal behavior arises from our need as persons to define ourselves through our relationships with others. Interpersonal skills are seen as central or important because they facilitate our capacity for self-fulfillment through relationships to others. We constantly confirm or modify our self-appraisals through interpersonal exchange. The assessment situation is an interpersonal exchange with considerably more feedback, of a very high quality, than many others. The outcomes of assessment are valued and viewed as helpful by most participants.

In part, the education of quality is due to the real-world flavor of its processes. One can observe interpersonal *behaviors* relatively easily, without special equipment and in a variety of contexts. Although there are limits on the explanations of complex skills such as group management, in general one *demonstrates* interpersonal knowledge rather than *writing* about it. Preparing for such demonstrations, reviewing performance later is a valuable learning experience.

The educative value of assessment is convincingly demonstrated by the work of Norman Kagan, at Michigan State University.[20] Kagan's method, called Interactive Process Recall, is a systematic reexamination of an interpersonal exchange by viewing a videotape. This examination is conducted by each participant, who describes the inner psychological conditions that accompany the overt behavior. It has been found that this systematic assessment is extremely helpful in making people aware of the inner states of others and of their own interpersonal communication patterns. Sessions of IPR have been demonstrated to improve the relationships of counselors to clients, or of physicians to patients.

Because of its educative potential, assessment in interpersonal education tends to be introduced in the context of the learning experience, at least in sponsored situations. The faculty member responsible for the interpersonal program will plan a series of assessment steps throughout the course of the learning, keeping in mind not only the requirements for an orderly and systematic program but also the special needs of the student. The nature of these steps is varied. Frequently the central activity linking assessment and learning is a seminar for students in experiential situations. At the meetings of the seminar there is a review of experience. It is presented by the student and discussed by the faculty guide. Supporting documents such as journals are suggested and used. Informal role-playing simulations guide the understanding of the real-life experience.

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[20] Norman Kagan, "*Can Technology Help Us Toward Reliability in Influencing Human Interaction?*"

Sometimes the greatest value to the assessment process is its continued restatement of such questions as: What have I learned? How am I different for learning it? By focusing attention on performance, on competence, by identifying indicators of competence, by assessing performance in the light of such indicators and in conjuction with objective, well-trained observers, the assessment process offers the student an unusual opportunity for accurate self-appraisal. It is its capacity for providing this clear basis for change that underlies the assessment as an instructive process.

It is important to recognize that the formal demonstration of educative outcomes as a result of interpersonal assessment is a difficult matter. Study A3 in *The CAEL Validation Report*[21] addressed this very question: "What is the educational value to the student of the assessment of interpersonal skills?" The study obtained ratings from four judges of the quality of student self-descriptions for two groups of students—those who had completed an assessment process in the interpersonal area and those who had not. The conclusion was that "ratings from four appropriate judges could not be used to differentiate in spite of an apparently reliable consensus on what was being rated."[22]

Such a study cannot *prove* that there are no educational values to assessment. It reminds us, however, that much of the argument in favor of such values is diffuse and rational, and that there is a real need to produce some sort of empirically-oriented demonstration that educational outcomes are more than pious hopes. Study A3 in *The CAEL Validation Report* provides a model that can be adapted for application at a specific institution.

Available Techniques

A wide array of assessment strategies are relevant to the appraisal of interpersonal skills. The CAEL publication *A Compendium of Assessment Techniques*,[23] for example, cites a number of differentiated approaches:

1. Work samples
2. Simulations
3. Assessment center
4. Essays
5. Objective examinations
6. Interviews

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[21] See Study A3 in Chapter IV of Warren W. Willingham and Associates, *The CAEL Validation Report*.

[22] Willingham et al., p. IV–43.

[23] Joan Knapp and Amiel Sharon, *A Compendium of Assessment Techniques*.

7. Self-assessment
8. Ratings
9. Product assessment

This analysis is by no means the only possible one, but it serves to indicate the diverse strategies that are potentially available. Each of these approaches is a possible technique to use in assessing interpersonal skills. In certain cases, one method will be more applicable for a given aspect of interpersonal skill. For example, the use of objective examinations to make a first-level assessment of managerial skills is a fairly well-developed practice. In these examinations, case studies supply the raw material, and optional management decisions are specified. The skill appraisal is centered on the appropriateness of the option that is selected. It is doubtful whether a similar approach would be as successful in assessing, say, leadership ability, where successful behaviors seem less predictable. Nonetheless, no combinations of technique and skill can be rejected outright as inappropriate. Each technique may find applications across the range of skills; each must be evaluated for its potential contribution to the evaluation of performance in any area.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

With a fairly wide range of available techniques, one important step in assessment will be deciding among alternative techniques. A number of criteria may be used for such decisions. The major examples of such criteria are (1) the available resources, (2) the social context of the assessment program, and (3) the measurement standards that are adopted.

Available Resources

In general, the resources of a program in an institution are a major factor. An assessment center, as a technique, is a costly operation, demanding a most intensive appraisal of each candidate, often by quite sophisticated means. Such a center will be heavily demanding of resources of all types: financial, equipment, and personnel. Objective examinations, on the other hand, if an appropriate published test is available, may be extremely cost effective and less demanding of resources. Any decision among techniques must carefully weigh these costs and benefits. In general, the first three techniques on the list of available techniques are more costly, with, as implied above, an assessment center as perhaps the most costly. These techniques are the ones that demand the most lifelike appraisals—and this proximity to complex real-life experience costs money to achieve. Ratings and interviews, however, can also be costly to obtain, particularly when staff training is required.

In evaluating the allocation of resources, the instructional component of assessment must not be overlooked. Because assessment in nontraditional and experiential settings can be an integral part of the learning, one reationale for its planning derives from that learning. Diagnostic feedback from interpersonal assessment is invaluable in planning instruction or further experience. From this viewpoint, it is probably true that the more expensive techniques offer better learning and feedback potentials than the less expensive approaches. When this is the case, perhaps a justification for them can be achieved by combining the two dimensions of the technique—assessment and learning—and by pointing to important educational benefits as well as measurement ones.

Social Context

An appraisal system for the interpersonal domain must be interpersonnally effective. That is, it must be acceptable to students, to faculty, and to administrators; to the supervisors of learning experiences; and perhaps also to more remote parties such as accrediting agencies and the public. The methods of assessment must seem fair to the student, and they must have a "face validity"—a surface logic—which makes their use seem appropriate to all parties. For example, if a student seeks credit for experience as a manager, it may be appropriate to secure ratings by the subordinates. But, in fairness, these may need to be balanced by ratings by peers and superiors, particularly in a managerial area where difficult decisions had to be imposed on the subordinates.

The social context will vary from setting to setting. In some settings it would be awkward to use objective examinations for any component of skills appraisal, because of a mistrust of such tests on formal, a priori grounds by some persons in the social context. In some other institution, attitudes toward objective examinations might be much more positive. There might be no apprehension at all. It is impossible to predict specific attitudes. All that can be said is that techniques are reacted to evaluatively by the people by whom, and for whom they are used. The nature of these reactions is a major criterion for the adoption of specific strategies.

Social context is seen as a factor that will influence the choices of assessment techniques, but this kind of context is not unchangeable. To a great extent it reflects the prevailing attitudes toward interpersonal education and toward assessment techniques. These attitudes may be modified. Often the expressed concerns about interpersonal education are based on fears that it is easy credit, or that it represents the recognition of surface values such as popularity. Assessment techniques are often viewed as too costly or as lacking in generalizability to real-world situations.

CAEL Validation Study A1 offers some demonstration of the impact of social context on assessment. The study collected data on the amount of credit awarded to illustrative cases in three fields: psychology, management, and education at each of nine institutions. The report states that "there is statistically meaningful evidence that some institutions are unusually stringent (or flexible) in awarding credit in psychology, while other institutions are unusual in their pattern of credit in management or in education. This is further evidence of the variations among decision standards which are found within institutions as well as among them."[24]

Experience with the reality of education and assessment often modifies opinion. A conservative beginning, building on what is already the prevailing opinion of the community, is reasonable. But in planning assessment there should not be total rejection of methods because of problems in winning their acceptance. Rather, efforts should be made to give these methods an opportunity to demonstrate their effectiveness. Use them at first as supplementary approaches, to give both students and faculty an opportunity to learn about them. If the method of leaderless group discussion, for example, seems misunderstood when first proposed, it need not be abandoned. Rather, some effort to conduct demonstration sessions or to show videotapes of them should be tried. Each approach described here has worked in a large number of settings. Each can confidently be proposed for application elsewhere. By openness, by a willingness to let others see the technique in action, by an understanding of the reservations people have about the technique, one can do much to alter negative opinion and win acceptance.

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[24] Willingham et al., p. IV-13

Psychometric Standards

Each of the proposed methods has a generalized utility in assessment because each has been demonstrated to work in a variety of settings. But the interpersonal domain is quite complex. This poses a number of problems of inference from the particular sample of behavior that is being studied to more general, real-life behaviors occurring at other times. Reliance upon one technique will be difficult. Usually, a multiple-method strategy combining techniques is the most reliable and valid approach. The decision to use a given technique will be based on its capacity to offer an experimentally independent, but logically related, contribution to the total set of information. There must be consensus among approaches in order to insure the reliability and validity of the assessment, and decisions about measures will rest on these considerations as well.

Considerations of resources, of social context, and of psychometric standards are the major criteria for decisions about technique. The methods may also be structured, however, in terms of three dimensions:

1. *Direct vs. Indirect.* Is the skill appraised by a direct assessment of behavior, or is it inferred by some more indirect approach, such as the assessment of a product which is the outcome of the skill? For example, is the appraisal of managerial effectiveness based directly on the observation of the managing itself—or is it based on indirect indicators, such as the incidence of complaints, reports of general group morale, etc.?
2. *Cumulative vs. Concurrent.* Is it based on a specific short period, or is it cumulative over a long time? Does it cover concurrent or recent behavior, or is it focused on prior activity? A rating by a subordinate who reported to the manager for a few days some years ago is quite different from a rating based on years of contact up to and including the recent past.
3. *Objective vs. Subjective.* Is the information supplied by the individual who is being assessed, or by others? Information supplied by others is justifiably considered to be more objective, but there are certain kinds of information which can only be authenticated by the person involved. Furthermore, the educational value of self-assessment may weigh heavily in favor of including it.

These characteristics of the various techniques are obviously related to the more general criteria of resources, context, and standards. Direct assessments are costlier, in general, than other methods. Time-cumulative approaches may cost more than short-term concurrent appraisals, but time-cumulating appraisals would seem to be inherently more reliable.

There is a need to review any specific set of techniques for their diversity in terms of these characteristics. In general, the more diverse the set of approaches in an assessment program the better. The following chart shows how the various techniques compare in terms of cumulativeness, directness, and objectivity.

	Objective Reports by Others		Subjective Self-Reports	
	Concurrent Record	Cumulative Record	Concurrent Record	Cumulative Record
Direct Inference	Performance tests Simulations Assessment center Interviews	Ratings	Current journal Self-ratings	Autobiography
Indirect Inference	Essay Objective written examination	Product assessment	Appraisals of others	

The assignments in this chart are forced, in many cases. Ratings, for example, constitute a general strategy applicable to the evaluation of behaviors in a number of settings, as for example, in simulations, in the appraisal of products. But ratings derived as a summary of direct behavior perceived over a lengthy period of time probably constitute the most frequent use of this technique. Accordingly, they are mentioned in this cell. Similarly, product assessment is not always focused on products generated over a longer span, as opposed to a brief time sample—but it most often is—and so product assessment has been categorized as cumulative.

As the chart implies, the focus of appraisal has been and will be heavily weighted toward appraisal by others. But there are meaningful operations, potentially, for each of the cells in this chart, and a balanced assessment program will consider all of them as possibly useful. In fact, the major utility for the chart might be in its implicit invitation to consider the need for an assessment of skill based on a brief, concurrent record, on self-report, and on an indirect aspect of behavior. For example, in evaluating skill as a lecturer there could be consideration of the number of people who requested literature, or signed up for a mailing list at the end of the presentation. Such information, brief, concurrent, and based on self-report, can contribute to an overall assessment. By involving students in assessment, it has much value in assisting them to a self-governing education.

In summary, a number of major considerations will determine the selection of components for an assessment program. These are summarized in the box below.

Six Major Considerations in Establishing an Assessment Program

1. Available Resources. Some of the most interesting and valid techniques for the assessment of interpersonal skills through direct observation are expensive because of their demand for staff time and special equipment. The basis for their use may need to rest, at least partly, on their educational value.

2. Social Context. The process of assessment for credit is a social process. The techniques that are selected must satisfy the felt needs of all members of the community for an objective and rigorous assessment. Some changes of attitude or values are possible, however, as people gain experience with methods.

3. Psychometric Standards. Although the interpersonal domain is a difficult area within which to measure, the techniques which are chosen must meet acceptable criteria for reliability and validity, objectively established.

4. Directness of Approach. Skill can be assessed through direct evaluation of behavior or indirectly through the products or consequences of behavior. A balanced program will use both approaches. Direct approaches, as mentioned above, may be costly.

5. Time-frame Considered. Assessment may be largely concurrent, focusing on present levels of skill, or cumulative, considering an experiential record over a longer period of time. Each approach is a valuable component. Cumulative techniques are more relevant to prior learning.

6. Use of Self-report. Assessment is an objective process involving evaluation by others. Nonetheless, there are appropriate uses for self-reports, and students should be encouraged to contribute extensively to the information base for their evaluation. The principal rationale for this may lie in its value to the student.

A TYPICAL PROGRAM

Although there are optional possiblities in establishing assessment programs, it seems likely that most programs will center on five principal techniques. These are as follows:

1. Experience checklists
2. Description of experience
3. Interviews
4. Documentation of accomplishment
5. Ratings

These forms of appraisal have a certain logic if they are explored in precisely his sequence. Briefly, the sequence moves from a very general coverage with the completion of the checklist, through the validation of more specific accomplishments by means of documents and ratings. This process is described for the student in the companion Student Guide to this *Handbook*. It permits an economical use of the time of the faculty advisor and is an integrated core program for developing a portfolio of material relating to the awarding of credit.

The sequence is viewed as a cumulative process. The checklist leads naturally to the description of experience, which is, in a sense, an expansion of it. These, in turn, can lead to superior interviews because the interviewer has an extensive information base. After the interviews, the letters of reference and other evidence of documented accomplishments can be secured, and finally a level of function appraisal can be secured by means of ratings.

The elements of the sequence do not demand extensive measurement sophistication. They should be within the resources of most institutions. They demand careful attention, training, and the use of quality control procedures to be certain that standards are maintained, but they require no specific equipment or elaborate procedures because their focus is less on the *demonstration* of interpersonal competence than on the establishing of it. It is assumed that, in most cases of credit for interpersonal skills, credit will be awarded for *established* skills, without a specific appraisal of the behavior in question.

Additional techniques are discussed in the next chapter. Several of these focus on the appraisal of demonstrated skills, by the use of techniques such as work samples and simulations. They may be useful in situations where the core sequence is insufficient for a final decision, or as a validation process for the core sequence. Given the initial five approaches, these additional techniques bring to 11 the total number reviewed. They are:

6. Topical essays
7. Paper-and-pencil tests
8. Group discussion sessions
9. Simulations
10. Work samples
11. Content analyses

Of these approaches, the discussions, simulations, and work samples make direct appraisals of behavioral samples and are somewhat more elaborate procedures. As in the companion *Student Guide* to this *Handbook*, the procedures are reviewed in the order presented above. The approach to each topic in the *Student Guide* is necessarily different, since the *Guide* is oriented toward the student's need to prepare for assessment. Chapter IV of the *Student Guide*, however, will supplement the material presented here.

THE CONCEPT OF THE CORE PROGRAM

General Considerations

The assessment of interpersonal skills is made difficult by the general unfamiliarity with the concept of crediting in this area. Although recognition of these skills is growing and specific courses and learning experiences are being developed with the intent of fostering greater interpersonal abilities, there is a widespread concern about the appropriateness of formal academic recognition of the area. This concern derives from two factors: the general ambiguity of interpersonal description in the literature of psychology and the fear that what is recognized as interpersonal skill will be, in fact, simply personality, not a trainable skillful performance, but simply larger aspects of the self, such as extroversion. Accordingly, the concept of the core program, of a series of recommended steps to be followed for all students, is developed in a context in which it is imperative to offer objective, fully-documented procedures for meeting the reasonable objections of those who are concerned.

The development of the rationale for assessment in this *Handbook* is heavily role-centered. Instead of analyzing interpersonal skills into functional components that would be broadly relevant across roles, the model stresses the concept of the skill cluster, which leads more to a differentiation among roles. The core maintains this role-centered perspective and stresses the validation of competence by the validation of role-experience. It seeks to provide a set of procedures with a reasonable amount of firmness or rigidity, so that the important questions of creditability can be answered by a process of systematic documentation which, although it permits appropriate flexibility, stresses the need for visible, reviewable procedures and standards in the appraisal process.

Flexibility

The core program also leads naturally to the formation of a portfolio and to the designation of the general forms of documentation that it will contain. The quality of reproducibility of assessment, so that the all-important properties of reliability and validity can be evaluated, is contingent upon the development of an adequate documentation of the judgments that are made. Each of the procedures in the core program leads to a meaningful, analytical written document that can be retained for further study or compared with parallel documents developed by others. Again, the stress is upon the development of a publicly demonstrable record of the assessment process, based upon a balanced number of appraisal techniques rather than on the use of global measures arrived at through basically unstable judgments.

The core program is intended to be a flexible instrument, open to modification as necessary and appropriate. Thus, the interview is recommended as the third step in the process, but it is recognized that in given situations it may be appropriate to conduct an initial, exploratory interview in advance of, in connection with, or perhaps in lieu of the experience checklist. There is a solid rationale for the proposed sequence because the successful accumulation of material in the early steps facilitates the expansion of the information base in the later steps. However, there is no intent to specify only a single sequence, or to suggest that the core program is the only program which will be applicable in institutional settings.

The core program is intended to be combined with other measures where necessary. These other techniques, discussed in Chapter VII, are seen as valuable corroborations of the basic judgments reached by means of the core. They provide an array of strategies with which to expand the data base. Decisions concerning them will ordinarily be reached only after the core information itself has been evaluated. Thus, the total assessment process is seen as being carried out in a number of steps.

Sponsored or Prior Learning

The core program is relevant to both sponsored and prior learning. For a number of reasons, however, it is likely that there will be less uniformity among sponsored learning programs than among those that assess prior activity. For example, sponsored activity is more likely to involve assessment of student growth. This dual purpose for assessment will lead to the specification of assessment activity on the basis of student need as well as administrative logic. The press of this need may lead to preliminary activity in assessing aspects of the learning that are far from complete. Similarly, assessment results serve a potential for modifying the learning experience in sponsored areas, and some steps may be introduced in the spirit of fostering such modifications.

The result of these factors is that the sequence of methods presented here is more likely to describe the assessment of prior learning than sponsored learning. Prior learning will lend itself more to the kind of logical exchange underlying the core sequence. This logical framework, however, is relevant to sponsored programs and certainly to the final assessment steps in which the learning is considered complete. Some adjustment to the sponsored situation is to be expected and constitutes one instance of the flexibility in the approach that is discussed above.

Sixteen Principal Steps in
An Assessment Process for Interpersonal Skills

(Each step presupposes the successsful completion of the previous steps.)

1. Student makes initial inquiry about credit for experience.
2. Student receives descriptive literature.
3. Student is given an initial consultation about the program.
4. Portfolio is begun.
5. Student completes an experience checklist.
6. Counselor evaluates a checklist.
7. Student completes a role experience summary.
8. Counselor evaluates the role experience summary.
9. Counselor interviews the student; ratings are developed.
10. Documentation of accomplishment is completed.
11. Ratings of field experience performance are secured.
12. Portfolio is evaluated for completeness.
13. Need for supplemental measures is appraised.
14. Necessary supplemental measures are secured.
15. Portfolio is reviewed for completeness.
16. Final evaluation is made.

EXPERIENCE CHECKLISTS

The checklist is viewed as a convenient initial step in the development of information. It does not take long for the student to complete, and it has the advantage of suggesting, by the breadth and depth of its categories, the range of possible experiences that *may* be considered. This suggested range provides a scale against which to measure the activities the student has checked. It can be evident from the checklist that the range of experiences is simply too limited to qualify for credit. Students will doubtless tend to propose experiences which they hold to be personally meaningful, but which are too narrow. The checklist makes it easier to convey this quality.

Checklists are primarily suggested for their usefulness in moving to the next steps—the preparation of the description of experience and the conduct of the interview. Each of these steps demands a systematic information base, which is precisely what the checklist supplies. Checklists permit the student to prepare a comprehensive description of experience by systematically expanding on the checked categories of the checklist. It is possible that the checklist will remind the student of experience that was not perceived as relevant, or encourage the description of experience that was withheld in the mistaken belief that it could not contribute to crediting. A different experience checklist should focus on each of the major skill clusters described in Chapter II. There may be a need for other checklists that will be centered on specialized interpersonal situations, such as the ability to understand a foreign culture.

The development of the checklist is primarily a matter of listing the principal characteristics of the experience. Because the checklist requires no special responses, it can be created by knowledgeable persons in a relatively short time. It has an informal quality to it; no particular value attaches to the precise order in which its components are explored. A checklist can be revised after use, expanded, or contracted with relative ease.

Checklists should not be tediously long or excessively detailed. A sample checklist for interpersonal skills growing out of experience in managing is included in this section. This checklist provides a convenient summary of a variety of personal experiences. It surveys a number of dimensions of the managerial role, particularly as these relate to interpersonal skills. Not all of the entries are narrowly interpersonal. That is, some of the activities included, such as "Reviewing fairness of compensation for all staff members," would be carried out as a kind of statistical exercise. This is in sharp contrast to such a specific behavior as "Reprimand a subordinate for an inappropriate decision which led to unnecessary expense for the organization." In each case, however, the activity is selected because it would ordinarily involve other people and would demand a dimension of interpersonal skill in order to be done well.

Checklists, as the model demonstrates, may be somewhat redundant. That is, different specific activities may all relate to the same fundamental point, as this checklist does in having three entries for the establishing of compensation, depending upon whether it is decided by, recommended by, or communicated by the manager. This redundancy is not a weakness, provided that the overlap is not so great that the information gained is precisely the same in each case. Short of this excessive repetition of information, a certain amount of redundancy is desirable.

The best sources of checklists are the practitioners of a role. They can be asked to describe their work systematically, detailing each situation that they feel reveals some dimension of their activity. These can be checked for excessive redundancy and presented to a trial sample of students. The checklist should have room for spontaneous comments and the addition of information, since some student experiences are likely to be highly idiosyncratic and not included in the checklist. In the developmental stages such an "Other" category can be invaluable in suggesting dimensions of the role which may have been overlooked.

The basic steps in the development of a checklist are presented below. Unlike the development of tests, the development of checklists does not require detailed technical skills to be effective. The measurement value of the list lies in its more general properties, its coverage of the domain, and its clarity of language, rather than in any differentiation into right or wrong answers. A good, comprehensive checklist can be developed by following these fundamental procedures.

Steps in the Development of an Experience Checklist

1. Secure the cooperation of practitioners of the role. A group of four or five is optimal, even more if the role is practiced in diverse settings.
2. Ask each practitioner to describe as many activities as possible that comprise the domain of the role behaviors.
3. Review the pool of suggested activities for redundancy, weeding out activities that overlap too much with other activities.
4. Review the pool of suggested activities for clarity of language, removing vagueness or excessive wordiness wherever possible.
5. If possible, secure an existing formal role (job) analysis in order to verify that the coverage of the checklist does not omit any salient characteristics of the role.
6. Ask a sample of students to respond to the checklist. Ask both students with and without claims to relevant experience. Revise or discard a given activity that is responded to by those who do not claim the experience. Ask the students, upon completing the list, to report any language ambiguities that may have caused problems, and revise accordingly.
7. Organize the checklist so that cognate activities are as near each other as is possible.
8. Include a free response section in the checklist to supplement the coverage of the checklist.

A Sample Checklist of Experience Indicating Interpersonal Competence in Managing Skills

To the Student: This checklist is composed of a number of specific activities that may be performed in managing, selected because they seem most indicative of the demands for interpersonal skills. You will probably not be able to check more than a fraction of this total, but please read through the list and carefully consider the extent to which you have ever performed the indicated behavior.

Since managing takes place in many contexts, the general word "organization" is used throughout. Similarly, "staff member" is used to indicate a member of the organization. The list is intended to be sufficiently general to permit the review of experience in managing that may have been secured in a voluntary or noncompensated activity. Thus, in reviewing the "hiring" of a staff member, it is more appropriate to think of "selecting" a staff member.

Please accept the overlap among categories that necessarily appears. "Establishing compensation," "announcing salary increases," and "recommending salary increases" will frequently be related activities. Nonetheless, they are somewhat different in the interpersonal situations they lead to.

1. Total time accumulated in managerial roles

   ________ Less than 6 months
   ________ Six months but less than a year
   ________ 1 year but less than 2
   ________ 2 years but less than 5
   ________ 5 years or more

2. Number of separate managerial positions or roles which you have held.

   ________ 1
   ________ 2-3
   ________ 4 or more

3. Were you salaried in these roles?

   ________ All
   ________ Some
   ________ None

4. Were you full time in these roles?

   ________ All
   ________ Some
   ________ None

5. What kind of organization(s) did you manage?

   a. Organizational size (If you have had more than on experience, put a separate mark for each organization in which you have had experience).

      0-9 ____________________
      10-19 ____________________
      20-49 ____________________
      50-99 ____________________
      100 or more ____________________

   Indicate the types of persons you have managed and the approximate number categories in 5b, 5c, and 5d below.

   b. Sex classification

	0	1-4	5-15	More than 15
Male	______	______	______	______
Female	______	______	______	______

   c. Race or Ethnic Group

	0	1-4	5-15	More than 15
White	______	______	______	______
Black	______	______	______	______
Spanish-American	______	______	______	______
Oriental	______	______	______	______
American Indian	______	______	______	______

d. Age Category

	0	1-4	5-15	More than 15
Under 20	______	______	______	______
20-29	______	______	______	______
30-49	______	______	______	______
50-65	______	______	______	______
Over 65	______	______	______	______

Which of the following managerial activities have you performed?

6. ______ Hiring (or selecting) a new staff member
7. ______ Firing (or dismissing) a staff member
8. ______ Establishing compensation for new staff members
9. ______ Reviewing fairness of compensation for all staff members
10. ______ Establishing annual increases in compensation for staff members
11. ______ Establishing work hours for staff members
12. ______ Establishing procedures for handling employee grievances
13. ______ Submitting an organizational budget
14. ______ Promoting a subordinate
15. ______ Establishing training programs for staff members
16. ______ Establishing production (activity) goals for staff
17. ______ Managing persons with physical handicaps
18. ______ Managing persons with emotional problems
19. ______ Appointing committees of staff for special purposes
20. ______ Representing your organization in dealings with "outside" people
21. ______ Conducting a conference call
22. ______ Conducting staff meetings to keep staff informed
23. ______ Establishing policy for staff absences for illness or other excused leave (jury duty, etc.)
24. ______ Authorizing the purchase of equipment
25. ______ Meeting with representatives of other subgroups of the same organization
26. ______ Reassigning a staff member in order to achieve greater working effectiveness
27. ______ Participation in community activities with a clear identification that this was on behalf of the organization
28. ______ Disciplining an employee who violated a rule or principle of organizational behavior
29. ______ Coordinating staff work needed for a policy report
30. ______ Delegating responsibility to an assistant and managing the area by periodic review only
31. ______ Evaluating the written recommendations of a working staff committee
32. ______ Participating in a staff training program
33. ______ Establishing production or service goals of a group
34. ______ Reassigning fixed staff responsibilities to maximize organizational efficiency
35. ______ Reassigning organizational space (office, desks, etc.) to maximize efficiency

36. ________ Interviewing potential new members of the organization to evaluate them for possible selection
37. ________ Preparing formal organizational records of the evaluations of subordinates
38. ________ Making recommendations for the promotion of subordinates
39. ________ Making recommendations for salary increases for subordinates
40. ________ Making recommendations for transfers for subordinates
41. ________ Preparing an organizational affirmative action plan (i.e., one which safeguards the rights of minorities)
42. ________ Disciplining a staff member for tardiness or absence
43. ________ Disciplining a staff member for inappropriate conduct in relation to another staff member
44. ________ Counseling staff members on personal problems
45. ________ Resolving conflicts among staff members
46. ________ Meeting with staff members to review grievances
47. ________ Interviewing staff members to gather information on needs for training
48. ________ Authorizing a staff member's travel for training or educational experience at organizational expense
49. ________ Negotiating with other units within the organization in order to effect an equitable allocation of space and facilities
50. ________ Developing forms for recording personnel decisions and reviewing them with the staff members for whom they are pertinent
51. ________ Appearing on TV or radio to describe some aspect of your organization
52. ________ Appearing as a speaker before some group in order to describe your organization or some aspect of its operation
53. ________ Describing your organization at an "open house" for relatives of staff members or for others
54. ________ Reviewing security procedures to maintain the confidentiality of the records of your organization
55. ________ Cooperating in an interview by a newspaper or magazine on the operation of your organization
56. ________ Meeting with a staff member who was emotionally upset by some aspect of the work situation
57. ________ Developing an organizational chart for a new organization so that adequate lines of decision and authority are provided
58. ________ Revising an organizational chart for an organization so that lines of decision and authority are improved
59. ________ Developing a clear, written statement of organizational purpose so that staff members may make informed decisions
60. ________ Initiating communication patterns for the flow of documents so that staff members are appropriately informed
61. ________ Inititating or revising an organizational information-sharing device, such as a newsletter
62. ________ Sponsoring a social affair which is intended to permit staff members to meet with each other and learn more about each other as persons
63. ________ Conducting a recognition activity, such as a long-service luncheon, or an end-of-project social gathering
64. ________ Effecting a temporary transfer of a staff member to facilitate the accomplishment of some specific project

65. ________ Managing a person whose technical competence in a given area (computers, accounting, etc.) is greater than your own
66. ________ Planning a promotional campaign to inform the public of the services or products of your organization
67. ________ Planning a package in which to distribute a product of your organization
68. ________ Signing a legal document as the representative of your organization
69. ________ Designing a distribution system for the products or services of your organization
70. ________ Securing the services of an appropriate consultant for your organization
71. ________ Reprimanding a subordinate for an inappropriate decision that led to unnecessary expense to the organization
72. ________ Managing a person with limited ability in the English language
73. ________ Discussing retirement with an older staff member
74. ________ Announcing mandatory retirement to an older staff member
75. ________ Reviewing organizational safety procedures and the criteria for determining that they are met
76. ________ Requesting a demonstration of a new product or service which is of potential value to the organization
77. ________ Accepting an invitation to witness a demonstration of a product or service of potential value
78. ________ Arranging for a visit to the organization by a person who will stimulate and instruct the staff in some aspect of the work
79. ________ Handling a problem of staff members devoting too much time to socializing on the job
80. ________ Arranging for a formal organizational gesture of sympathy for a staff member or relatives afflicted with illness, injury, or death
81. ________ Establishing criteria for differentiating staff members into levels of competence with associated titles
82. ________ Attending a meeting of a professional or occupational society relevant to the activity of the organization and reporting it to appropriate superiors and subordinates
83. ________ Making an oral report of organizational functioning to a superior or superiors
84. ________ Laying off a staff member
85. ________ Assuming the role and responsibilities of your superior during his or her absence
86. ________ Announcing compensation increases to staff members
87. ________ Reviewing with a staff member a problem of a rate of work that is too slow to meet the organizational standard
88. ________ Reviewing with a staff member the long-term prospects for advancement within the organization
89. ________ Securing oral appraisals of potential staff members from previous employers and supervisors
90. ________ Introducing a new staff member to co-workers

The foregoing list cannot be complete nor can it adequately reflect each element of your personal experience. In the space below, please identify any difficulties you encountered in using the checklist, and any additional information about yourself that you believe is important but not adequately reflected by the checklist.

Additional comments and/or information:

DESCRIPTION OF EXPERIENCE

This self-description will be centered on competences. It is a narrative presentation of the various experiences relevant to specific skill clusters. It will expand on the information in the checklist. It logically should precede the interview, which will be more efficiently and thoroughly conducted if it is oriented toward the content of the description of experience.

The description of experience may be based upon the kind of self-descriptive essay advocated in Chapter III of the *Student Guide*. In that context, however, self-description is intended to serve the purposes of self-development. Such a personal essay will usually be too broad in its coverage for the objective requirements of assessment. It will need to be reformulated into an intensive review of the specific role experiences that have been relevant to skill development. Furthermore, the description of experience is oriented more toward the planning of a sponsored program for experience in the interpersonal domain. The description of experience, in the context of assessment, is more a review of previous accomplishments whether it is the prior learning of a mature adult who seeks to return to school or the report of a student who has completed a sponsored experience.

The description of experience should consider every element of experience that has been checked on the checklist and should answer the following questions: "Where?" "How?" "When?" "Why?" "With whom?" "To whom?" "How successful was it?" The purpose is to document the experience, to indicate its dimensions, and to demonstrate that the student has a deep understanding of its relevance for his personal development in the role. Other people who were significant in the experience should be named and described in detail. A sample set of instructions to the student is provided below. It is important to devise a set of instructions that will maximize the student's understanding of the task. The preparation of the description of experience is usually a time-consuming job for those whose experience is extensive enough to warrant academic credit.

A Sample Set of Instructions for Securing the Description of Experience as Manager

To the Student: Your completion of the checklist indicates that you may have, potentially, a broad enough set of experiences upon which to base academic credit. However, much more must be learned before the final determination can be made. The next step is the preparation of a description of your experience.

You have indicated an interest in gaining credit for interpersonal competence in connection with the skill cluster "manager." Now we would like you to summarize all of the life experiences in which you have played this role. Review your checklist responses and ask yourself the following questions about each one: "When did it happen?" "Where did it happen?" "How did I behave?" "Why did I do what I did?" "With whom was I working at the time?" "To whom did I relate?" "How successful was I?" Then give a brief statement of the experience so that your counselor would know the answer to these questions. Focus on your experience in the role of manager. Do not include other interpersonal roles or competences in your account unless they bear on the determination of your success in managing. These other competences must be evaluated separately in an appraisal of their own.

Write your account in such a way that you explain what you have learned, how you learned it, and from whom. Be certain that you describe the significant people in the experience setting. Did you observe someone else in the role of manager, and did that person's role performance influence the development of your own style? If so, please describe the person and the style.

A broad variety of experiences will be relevant to this account. However, it is the experiences that have actually shaped your skills that count in the general area. Thus, liking an older peoson who played the role of manager may have motivated you to acquire competence, but it would not in and of itself contribute to the development of that competence and, therefore, would not be relevant to the assessment. Limit your account to learning experiences, and give as complete an account of your specific behaviors and accomplishments as you can.

The description of experience, together with the checklist, will be used to form the basis for an interview with you. In the interview you will be asked to answer questions about various aspects of managing. All of this material will become a formal part of your portfolio, and will be an important basis for establishing contact with persons who have known you in your experiential situation. The description, therefore, is a critical element in the process of your evaluation. Please work on it to give the completeness and polish that will make it a useful presentation of the validity of your request for academic credit.

The summary of the work experience will constitute the basic student statement of the experiences upon which learning has been based. It will be included in the portfolio with the results of the interviews, with references, and with ratings, but it differs from these other forms in one essential characteristic—its potential for a student display of integration in learning, of generalization from experience. In the companion *Student Guide* there is a discussion of the need for this dimension to the appraisal. It is not experience that is credited, but learning from experience. The description of experience gives the student an opportunity to display an understanding in depth of the particular situations upon which the skill was formed. Students should be encouraged to relate their specific accomplishments in a manner which describes, not only what they have done, or how they behaved, but *why* they chose the particular course of action they did. It is a valuable managerial experience to be asked to select from among a number of potential candidates for an organizational role. It is essential to learning, however, to know why particular decisions were made. What considerations were the basis for selecting a given person?

Other assessment techniques permit some of this development of rationale, also. The interview, for example, will explore these aspects of roles, and the concept of the topical essay derives from a need to assess the theoretical dimension of skill. But the description of experience has the advantage of permitting the student to make a formal, integrated statement of what was done and why it was done. Students should be urged to write a fully detailed description of their experience and to discuss particularly the generalizations or principles that have derived from it.

INTERVIEWS

Because of its importance in the assessment programs here proposed, the interview has been singled out for special treatment in Chapter VII. In that chapter it is extensively discussed, and examples of its development are provided.

In the context of the core program, the interview has a critical role. It is the only face-to-face evaluation experience, the only assessment technique that directly samples candidate social behavior. As such, it is invaluable for guarding against misconception and miscommunication, a function it serves for both faculty and student. Its content is determined by the assessment steps that precede it, and it sets the stage for the procedures that follow.

Probably no single technique among all of those reviewed in this *Handbook* is as valuable for the assessment of interpersonal skill as is the interview. A careful attention to Chapter VII and to the readings suggested in the bibliography will do much to produce a successful program.

DOCUMENTATION OF ACCOMPLISHMENT

The appraisal process, following the interview, will move on to the documentation of accomplishment. In most cases this will take the form of letters of reference, letters from field supervisors documenting that the experience occurred and that, in the judgment of the field supervisor, it met the standards of the program as these are understood, and any other information which may be required.

Often combined with these letters will be formal ratings of performance, on forms supplied by the faculty advisor. Such ratings are discussed in the next section of this chapter. These ratings and a general letter of reference will often be the subject of a single communication from the field personnel; however, they have

An Example of a Request for the Documentation of Experience

(date)

Mr. Alton Squires
Manager, Aeroform Group
Plastic Structures Corporation
Peoria, Illinois 61601

Dear Mr. Squires:

Ms. Belinda Moss has applied to Central State University for academic credit based in part on her experience while employed at Plastic Structures Corporation. I am writing to ask your cooperation in determining the nature of Ms. Moss' experience and to request a rating of her performance.

Our interest is focused specifically on the demonstration of interpersonal competence in managing. Ms. Moss indicates that from June, 1972 to October, 1972 she was in charge of a unit of workers at Plastic Structures Corporation and that during this time she reported to you. She has indicated that in her work she carried out the specific responsibilities indicated on the checklist of managerial experiences which is attached.

Our purpose in writing is threefold: First, we would like you simply to verify that the experience took place at the time and place indicated, and that the activities checked are a reasonable indicator of the scope of responsibility which Ms. Moss held. Second, we would like you to complete the enclosed rating forms on managerial competence, applying them to Ms. Moss' performance. As with any rating material, certain categories may not precisely fit the role which Ms. Moss held with you. We ask you to interpret the rating scales as best you can to indicate her performance.

Our third purpose is to ask you to comment more broadly on your perception of Ms. Moss. Do you recall any specific instances of her competence, or of difficulties which she encountered with the work? Do you feel that she demonstrated a level of skill or competence which would be expected of managers with training and backgrounds in higher education?

If, in the course of your review of her participation, you recall any documents which were prepared during the period of her employment, we would be pleased to have these to include in her portfolio. These could be prepared by or about Ms. Moss. They could be memoranda or reports, organizational newsletters, or simply charts of the performance of her working group. Any such material that, in your judgment, is relevant to the determination of her interpersonal skills as a manager will be appreciated.

We appreciate any information you may provide, for we recognize that our request will intrude upon your schedule. We are planning to make a formal review of Ms. Moss' portfolio on April 20th, and would appreciate receiving your response by then. If you feel that you need more information, please write or call me at (309) 242-1937.

Sincerely,

Melinda Schmidt
Coordinator, Student Evaluations

MS:j
Enclosure

somewhat different functions. The ratings tend to be structured appraisals along lines predetermined by the institution. The letters can be more open responses, more global judgments, in which the field evaluator develops the language of the appraisal.

Such field responses will be strongly influenced by the nature of the inquiry used to secure them. In some cases, the faculty advisor will have had extensive prior contact with the field person, and there may even be a contractual agreement between institution and field agency, covering well in advance the particulars of the letter. In other cases, as in the evaluation of prior learning, the field person will not have had previous contact and must be given an understanding of what is required.

The needs of the individual appraisal are so unique that the model offered here as a request for documentation should be seen primarily as a suggestion. One principle that should not be overlooked is that form of documentation other than the letters of recommendation or the ratings may be available. That is, there may be material available from the field experience that can be integrated into the appraisal. The field contact person should be specifically asked to review organizational activity for precisely such documentation. A student may have served as a counselor at a summer camp for handicapped children. When the appropriate field supervisors and peers are contacted, they should be asked whether there are useful records of the experience, developed for the camp's purposes, which might be abstracted for the purposes of the appraisal. Frequently there is more documentation available than the specific letters of recommendation which have been requested. These possibilities are returned to in a later discussion of the application of content analysis to the appraisal of interpersonal effectiveness.

RATINGS

Ratings are the basic technique for qualifying behavior in the interpersonal domain. In fact, they are the basic approach to quantifying complex skills in any other behavioral domains. As such, they are a component process for summarizing the outcomes of other techniques discussed here, such as the interview or the discussion group. Because the technique will be the primary approach to the validation of the level of skill acquired in field experience, it is specifically discussed in that context here.

Because ratings are so widely used, a great deal is known about the factors that make them effective or ineffective. Much information about this technique is available in the list of references at the end of this paper and in the CAEL *Compendium of Assessment Techniques.*[25] It would be redundant to review very technical aspects in depth here, but a certain attention to these matters, however, is appropriate. In general, the problems connected with ratings have to do with rater bias, with rater unreliability, and with the problems raters encounter in seeking clarity of concept of the trait being rated. There are specific strategies for combatting these various limitations, but we cannot cover them in the depth here.

First, many of the constructs being rated in the interpersonal domain are complex and abstract. Managerial effectiveness, overall contribution to group effort, effective teaching, all are quite global ideas. The result of this vagueness is to create a scale that is not well "anchored." That is, different raters can bring to the rating their own interpretation of what is involved, particularly when they are given starkly worded scales such as:

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[25] Joan Knapp and Amiel Sharon, *A Compendium of Assessment Techniques.*

Managerial Effectiveness

1. Fully effective
2. Predominantly effective
3. Partially effective
4. Ineffective

Such simple wordings will seem intuitively understandable but can be widely interpreted by users. The best way to anchor such a scale is to provide extensive examples of what is meant by its elements—by "fully effective" and "ineffective," for example. A good way of doing this is to provide brief case histories of exemplars who fall into the various categories as they are intended to be interpreted by the scale construction. Thus, the "fully effective" manager would be described in a brief paragraph that cited the relevant characteristics. This "scaling by examples" provides a set of checkpoints to which the rater can refer. When raters are functioning in a specific social setting, they may be able to rate interpersonally using a scale that is anchored by references to individuals whom they all know. Such a scale, although effective, has problems. There must be considerable privacy for the names of the individuals, since it is hardly complimentary to serve as the exemplar of lower levels of the hierarchy.

The attainment of appropriate anchoring is a matter of judgment. Not every scale demands lengthy verbal descriptions of the meanings of its points. If the concept to be rated is well and clearly defined, simple descriptions of the scale points may be sufficient. In the sample scale below there is an effort to anchor the labels through lengthier discussions of their meanings in the instructions to the rater, but there is a related effort to avoid referring to the global concept of "managing effectiveness" and to use instead more specific, behaviorally-oriented terms. In actual practice, of course, a wider variety of managing behaviors than the fifteen in the sample would be rated.

A Sample Rating Scale for Appraising Interpersonal Skills in Managing

Please rate the performance of the individual on a five-point scale as follows:

5 — Very competent. Could usually be expected to perform this role successfully when required. Needs little guidance or instruction in the area. Has adequate prior experience upon which to base behavior. Understands the fundamental principles for performance.

4 — Competent. Occasionally encounters difficulty with unusual instances of the demand for the behavior. Knows when to seek assistance and responds well to suggestions and guidance. Has basic prior experience and has developed insight into the principles of performance.

3 — Adequate. Can cope with the routine instances of the requirements in this area. Needs fairly consistent contact with a supervisor in order to maintain effectiveness. Has a limited prior experi-

ence and understands procedures to be followed rather than principles to be applied.

2 — Marginally inadequate. Encounters difficulty in too many aspects of the role to be effective. Demands too much supervision, due to limited prior experience, a basic unfamiliarity with the behaviors demanded.

1 — Inadequate. Worsens the problems encountered through very ineffective behaviors. Does not seem to understand the fundamentals for handling the situations.

If you do not have a basis for a rating on a particular scale, circle "DK" for Don't Know. Space has been provided at the end of the statements for additional information that you believe is relevant or for comments on the rating scales themselves. Please report any difficulty you encountered in using the scales or any special assumptions you may have made in interpreting the scale.

	Circle one
1. Interviewing a prospective staff member of the organization	1 2 3 4 5 DK
2. Writing a letter inviting a person to become a staff menber of the organization	1 2 3 4 5 DK
3. Establishing compensation for new staff members	1 2 3 4 5 DK
4. Introducing a new staff member to the persons who will be working most closely with him/her	1 2 3 4 5 DK
5. Securing oral appraisals of prospective staff members from previous employers or supervisors	1 2 3 4 5 DK
6. Reviewing with a staff member the long-term prospects for advancement with the organization	1 2 3 4 5 DK
7. Reviewing with a staff member the reasons for a failure to advance this person through a possible promotion (which goes instead to someone else)	1 2 3 4 5 DK
8. Announcing to a staff member that he or she is "laid off" or given a temporary suspension	1 2 3 4 5 DK
9. Announcing to a staff member that he/she is no longer needed by the organization because of reduction in staff or redefined goals for the organization	1 2 3 4 5 DK
10. Reviewing with a staff member the quality of performance that this person sustains, together with its implications for future promotions, compensations, etc.	1 2 3 4 5 DK

11. Reprimanding a staff member for performance that is unsatisfactory to the organization 1 2 3 4 5 DK
12. Announcing to a staff member that membership in the organization is terminated because of unsatisfactory performance 1 2 3 4 5 DK
13. Disciplining a staff member for tardiness or absence 1 2 3 4 5 DK
14. Counseling staff members on personal problems 1 2 3 4 5 DK
15. Negotiating with other parts of the organization 1 2 3 4 5 DK

Additional comments and/or information:

Second, raters have biases and values about interpersonal qualities. Managers in many cases need to be interpersonally dominant, aggressive, or firm if they are to deal effectively with diverse subordinates. It is possible for raters, however, to have biases against such qualities in people. Dominance and aggressivity are often socially inappropriate. The result is that candidates may get poor ratings when, in fact, their competences are adequate for the job. There is no simple defense against such biases. The use of as many raters as possible is the most straightforward defense; the development of training procedures and guidelines for raters is another.

Third, raters will vary their judgments from day to day. Most people are subjected to a large number of interpersonal contacts each day, and this constant exposure to the basic stimuli for judgment makes rating in the interpersonal domain quite difficult to do in a consistent fashion. The best defense against this is to require a number of "test" ratings by the raters on a regular periodic basis—to constitute, in effect, a continuing training program for the raters. Only by a constant watchfulness on the reliability of the ratings can their quality be preserved.

The examples and discussions of ratings are basically ratings of a person by others. However, it is not intended to suggest that ratings by the individual of self-performance are not both appropriate and desirable. Such ratings may be somewhat more subjective than ratings by others, but, as is mentioned in the following chapters, they may be extremely useful.

VII. Developmental Processes: The Interview

This chapter focuses on the needs for the development and adaptation of assessment processes to specific institutional settings. Although a number of instruments and procedures are available, commercially or through research reports, it must be expected that institutions will need to determine their own unique approaches to assessment. It seems appropriate, therefore, to present a brief overview of the major steps in the sequential process of developing or modifying instruments.

Such a review serves several functions. First, it is intended to reflect the belief that the development of assessment techniques is a practical set of steps well within the competence of faculty members or administrators without formal training in measurement. Much developmental work will be needed by experientially-oriented programs in the coming years, and the primary source of this activity must be faculty and administration.

Second, the review is intended to convey the need for systematic and careful attention to the major steps in the development of assessment strategies. Each step is intended to provide some necessary characteristic for the assessment approach which is being produced. But the developmental procedures are richer in principle than in step-by-step or cookbook detail. There is a need to translate each procedure into specific applications in the context of a specific project.

The discussion of the interview is intended to provide coherence and tangibility to counter the abstract quality of the developmental steps. Much could be written about developing other forms of assessment; leaderless groups, ratings of essays, etc. This broader review would have advantages, but it might blunt the force of the suggestion that developmental processes are sequential and interrelated. Limiting discussion to the interview provides a desirable continuity.

It must be recognized that the overview should be supplemented by the reading of other discussions of instrument development. There is a solid literature for each of the major strategies, and attention to this body of work will yield many insights into problems and solutions that are unique to the method under consideration. The present overview cannot replace this more extensive inquiry, but by indicating the scope and major elements of the developmental sequence, it should assist users in making some basic and major decisions.

To summarize, the aims of this chapter are:

1. To describe a generalized model for instrument development.
2. To focus on the interview as the major assessment technique.
3. To present the model as it relates to the development of an interview.
4. To review steps in conducting interviews.
5. To consider the applications of various forms of interviews.

Developmental Sequence

The process of developing assessment procedures may be presented in a number of ways, depending on the level of analysis. The six-step process chosen here is a useful balance between too much detail and an overly general approach. The six steps are presented in the box below.

A Model for Instrument Development

1. *Goal-setting.* The quality to be measured (the attitude, value, interest, accomplishments, etc.) is conceptualized and refined so that people can talk about it and reliably communicate about it. It can be anything from counseling ability to managerial skill.
2. *Selecting methods of assessment.* A strategy or strategies for assessing the attribute is decided upon. Paper-and-pencil test? Simulation? There are choices and reasons for choices, including time, resource acceptability, etc.
3. *Review of available examples.* Does any adequate instrument exist? Can one be adapted? Must one be constructed? A growing body of research on commercially available instruments exists.
4. *Developmental operations.* Assuming that instruments must be developed, the steps within this procedure may be described as:
   a. Establishing specifications
   b. Generating draft materials
   c. Trying out materials
   d. Evaluating individual components
   e. Assembling the instrument
   f. Developing practical aspects for administration
5. *Validating activity.* Where appropriate criteria exist, the new instrument can be administered so as to secure information attesting to its consistence with these criteria. In general, measurement specialists have defined a sufficient set of approaches to validity that some reasonable activity along these lines can be undertaken.
6. *Program administration.* Often the initial program administrations serve as the validating administrations, so that the use or application of the instrument proceeds concurrently with the collection of data for validation.

Two general points may be made about the six major components of the model. First, the work of goal-setting seems to imply some previous familiarity with the problems of development. One can set goals only if there is some previously developed knowledge about the activity. But frequently there is still a lot to learn in an area as complex as interpersonal skills. Accordingly, it is well not only to see goal-setting as a necessary initial planning and specifying step, but also to see it as sufficiently flexible to include modification if later developments so indicate. A real advantage to such a flexible attitude toward the process lies in the working out of differences in viewpoint among colleagues. There need not be extensive theoretical debates about the assumptions of the planning. The conflicts can, in a sense, be deferred. Later steps can be carried out so as to resolve some of the differences by testing the reality of their impact on the success of the assessment procedures. For example, a major conceptual step in developing interviews is a decision about their *structure*, the rigidity with which an interviewer will adhere to a prepared schedule of questions. This point *must* be decided in planning and conceptualizing, but it need not be established so firmly that opposing viewpoints are locked in difficult debate. In general, goal-setting is the development of a clear statement of the rationale for the specific characteristics of the assessment procedure. A first statement may be developed to launch the process, but it need not be considered so polished or finished as to lock the effort into a polishing of these specifications. A flexible approach that sees *feedback* as the work progresses is superior.

The second characteristic of the six steps is a reliance upon empiricism, on feedback, as the technique for refining the assessment procedures. The behavior being assessed is typically very complex; the procedures themselves try to take a sample of this behavior. But the appropriateness of the various aspects of the procedures can only be determined by try-out. A given interview question, for example, may look like an extremely productive inquiry, to the planners. In actual fact, some minor problems in its wording, or in its context within the interview, may make it ambiguous and lower its value dramatically. Only an attitude of wait-and-see, which evaluates the actual outcomes of interview questions, can confirm that they have the value they are supposed to have.

The process of goal-setting is the problem-defining process. It sets the stage for a determination of assessment methods. It tries to define a larger background of program factors and goals, with which to make some decisions about instruments and methods. The goal of "assessing interpersonal skill," for example, is too understated to provide the basis for an assessment program. There is too much unstated and undefined at this global level. There must be a more specific statement.

Goal-setting is a process of decision. It is difficult work because in order to be effective it involves decisions among many choices, each of which has positive features. The end result of this work is a statement that characterizes the broad goals of the assessment. No program can achieve *all* goals. Realistically, some must be excluded.

There is a certain amount of rhetoric, of idealism, in establishing program goals. The purely practical considerations may seem much more realistic factors to work with. Nonetheless, statements of goals have important functions, particularly in programs for assessing complex skills in the interpersonal area.

The models of Chapter II and of Appendix E are one approach to a statement of goals. Questions to be decided might be:

1. The extent to which the assessment is student-centered vs. institution-centered.
2. The extent to which assessment will directly observe behavior or gather indirect appraisals.
3. The policies for the assessment program with respect to such problems as the proper role of stress and the appropriateness of *responsive* interpersonal behavior (referred to as reciprocal skills in Chapter IX).
4. The relative emphasis on such general interpersonal qualities as sensitivity, rapport, openness, and tact, as opposed to such functional competences and abilities as the ability to counsel effectively or to meet the demand for interpersonal competence established in some job.
5. The values attached to the educational outcome of assessment for the student.

When factors such as these have been reviewed and formulated as a series of goals for the assessment, many of the decisions as to choices of assessment technique are made easier. The various techniques differ from each other in a number of ways. No single technique will be fully satisfactory when used alone. With the development of the goals for the assessment it is possible to evaluate various combinations of assessment approaches, testing these for their relevance to the goals. Of course, other considerations, such as the factors of available resources, social context, and psychometric standards, will enter into the decisions, but the goals will be a fundamental base for decisions.

Focus on the Interview

The interview has many advantages as a form of assessment of interpersonal skills. It offers a balanced opportunity to observe a person in an interpersonal situation, to form impressions of what that person is like, and yet to carry on a factual, information-oriented discussion about the experiences the person has had and the insights that have been gained from them.

The interview will probably be the basic approach to the assessment of interpersonal skills, not only as a sample of specific interpersonal behaviors, but as an opportunity for the candidate to document the experience and its value by responding adequately to the questions of the examiner. A single interview may be insufficient to constitute a reliable and valid appraisal; a number of studies of interview-based assessments in business and industry have demonstrated its limitations. But with reasonable efforts to maintain the skills of the interviewers, and to achieve multiple interviews, the limitations are not great.

An interview offers an opportunity to gather a direct sample of a number of behaviors: tonal quality of speech, patterns of languages, poise, general approach to meeting a stranger or a situation, etc. It is an effective sample of interpersonal behavior. It is a specialized situation, of course, and one of its limitations is the extent to which it is a valid base for generalization to other aspects of interpersonal relationships, but it offers an easily accessible technique for appraising someone under moderately controllable conditions.

There is a dual quality to the interview in the assessment of interpersonal attainment. It contributes information about present performance and about communication skills in relating to the interviewer. But it also provides information about past performance, and about the understandings which have derived from that past experience. If current performance is the center of interest, the interview would be considered as a kind of interpersonal simulation. Interpersonal skills are clearly demonstrated, for example, in job interviews, and these can be observed and appraised. It is probable that interview behavior will be evaluated from each major viewpoint: both as a direct sample of demonstrated interpersonal skill in relating to the examiner and as an indirect appraisal centering on previous experience. The conduct of the interview must balance these two purposes. It is impossible to determine beforehand the nature of the student's interpersonal relationship to the examiner, and there is a great need for caution about impressions of skill based on direct performance. Nonetheless, a sensitive interviewer can gain a good sense of the student's capacity for rapport, for tension reduction, for responsiveness.

Because of these advantages, the interview is singled out for special attention in this chapter, which describes the principal steps that should be undertaken in preparing to use interviews in assessment programs. There is a general sequence of steps which should be undertaken in the development of *any* instrument or method for assessment. This sequence is described with the intention of offering a process that can be applied to the preparation of a number of techniques. The specific examples that are chosen concern the interview, but the process would be appropriate for a number of other methods as well.

Assuming that the end result of step two is the designation of the interview as a needed assessment procedure, how is it developed? The third step calls for a consideration of available examples.

This general step is easier to carry out in formal objective testing, where commercial instruments are available. There is much less marketing of interviews, much less reporting of interviews in measurement or assessment literature. But there are some examples available, particularly in the reports of personnel work, where the interview is a frequently used approach. As experiential programs become more numerous in education, exchanges of instrumentation will perhaps facilitate this step.

There should not be too much focus on interviews as a source of examples. The more highly structured an interview, the more closely it resembles a questionnaire. Many useful ideas for the content and organization of interviews can be derived from related questionnaires.

The value of this third step lies in the concreteness of what is available. Seldom will a previous piece of work precisely meet the demands of a new program. But the example stimulates a number of considerations that are left somewhat unspecified in the process of goal-setting. Sometimes the effort to state why something that is available won't work, or would be unsatisfactory, leads to a valuable clarification. Furthermore, it gives the participants elements to point to. "I think that question 34 in this interview is too threatening," is often a more provocative statement leading to a richer exchange, than simply, "I don't think questions should be threatening."

The fourth step is really a series of steps, the heart of the development's effort. Entire books are devoted to these matters. Elaborate technological approaches are really not required; however, the processes are fairly logical ones. Some rules of thumb and a practical, common-sense approach to the problems will yield quite adequate results.

The specifications for the interview will describe its length, both in terms of number of questions and time. They will describe topics to be covered, conditions for administration, instructions to the interviewee, recommended format for recording, options for branching sets of questions, etc. They constitute a blueprint for the interview prior to its development. What is it supposed to look like?

Specifications for tests frequently consider the difficulty of questions. Interview questions will obviously differ in their difficulty, but the summation of the interview, described below in the section on its evaluation, is not additive in the way that test scores are. There is seldom a need to statistically evaluate individual test questions from a psychometric point of view.

Paradoxically, the interview can tap interpersonal skills so well that it is somewhat self-defeating. That is, an interviewee who is skilled in interpersonal strategies may be able to avoid lines of inquiry with which he or she is uncomfortable, diverting the questioner and making it difficult to formulate a well-developed and comprehensive network of questions. The best strategy for circumventing this is the so-called structured interview, in which a prepared schedule of questions is followed systematically by the interviewer. Such use of prepared questions has the added advantage of affording a greater measure of comparability among individuals who have been interviewed. Since each interviewee was responding to essentially the same questions, the responses can be more systematically compared.

However, structuring an interview is a matter of degree: If the interviewer is permitted to insert additional questions, or to modify the language of existing ones, the interview is made somewhat less structured. The questions themselves will also contribute to this "structured" quality for an interview. If they are *open*, the candidate has some latitude in responding. If they are *closed*, they can be answered only by choosing a predetermined statement or by providing specific information such as age, address, etc.

In general, assessment in the interpersonal domain calls for an intermediate degree of structure, of openness in questions. Questions must be well thought-out in advance and faithfully adhered to by the examiner; a certain proportion of the questions must call for simple, factual responses. But there is a need to stimulate a discussion of concepts in the interpersonal domain, and a too-highly structured interview will fail to do this.

Accordingly, interviews in interpersonal assessment should attempt to be balanced blends of the predetermined and the spontaneous, of the specific and the general. Although the interviewer should adhere to the language and order of questions on the assigned schedule, it should be permissible to insert additional, spontaneous questions, in order to seek elaboration or clarification, or to achieve a naturalness, ease, or rapport with the interviewee. Furthermore, the interviewee should be encouraged, upon completion of the formal schedule, to spend additional time following leads and seeking amplification. To assist interviewers in this broader exploration, there must be a statement of the goals and logic of the interview, of its priorities. This more general statement assists the interviewer to an integrated performance during the discretionary components of the interview.

Development of Content

In many respects devising goal interview questions is like devising goal examination questions. There is an obvious need not to abuse this fact and to avoid making the interview seem threatening or test-like. But each question in the test should have a function and should be appraised for the extent to which it contributes to that function.

The first order of business in devising an interview is to persistently inquire, "What do I need to know?" "By what questions can I learn this?" In any discussion of complex behaviors, there are a very large number of possible questions. Only a few of these can be asked. Those that are chosen must be superior to those that are not. The best process for insuring this is to draft extra questions, more than can be used, in the initial stages. Let the pool of potential questions grow to one-and-a-half or two times the anticipated size of the final interview. Then submit this larger pool to review, asking judges to sort the questions in terms of those that "go together" as a set and within a cluster by order of priority. By summarizing the results of these sorting tasks even with a few reviewers, some sense of the dimension of the pool and of the quality of the individual may be obtained.

It is, of course, desirable to reduce the number of questions by actual tryouts in interviews, but this can be a very time-consuming process. Some sense of response to questions can be developed by giving the structured interview as a questionnaire, to be completed in writing. Whether or not these additional steps are taken, the basic principle of overproduction at first and reduction by review or tryout is a helpful tool for securing questions of high quality.

The second draft should be approximately the correct length, in terms of the number of questions and the time they require for the final overall interview. There can be no precise determination of the time requirements for a given question or for the total set. In general, an interview for experiential assessment is likely to require a minimum of two hours and would cover at least 30 questions during this time. On the average, then, a question receives less than four minutes of the total time. Some questions, such as "How many people do you estimate that you have counseled?" will take only a few seconds. Others, however, demand more time. A question such as "What standards or criteria for assessing your own counseling performance do you use?" may well run longer than four minutes for some subjects.

The second draft can be used as the interview, and the interviewers can be urged to suggest modifications. During this developmental phase, it may be helpful to refer to the questions when reviewing the interview with the student. Were any questions considered unusually difficult or inappropriate? Sometimes students will volunteer perceptions that are very useful in making revisions.

The function of the interview is best served if there is reasonable uniformity among the sessions. The set of structured questions supports this uniformity. The final draft, then, should constitute the basic, constant framework for the interview. It should provide a set of questions that are asked of *all* students. There can, of course, be changes, for there will be experience with the schedule of questions, but once the interview is determined, there is considerable value in adhering to it and avoiding minor modifications.

Successful interviewing is the outcome of a number of traits and skills. Since an interview is an interpersonal interaction, it is subject to the many influences of personality, appearance, and recent experience of the participants that offset all such contact. But in spite of its sensitivity to these more or less controllable factors, interviewing is a trainable skill. It is done better with practice, particularly if it is approached with seriousness of purpose and a willingness to read and listen to discussions of how to do it.

The typical interviewer will be a faculty member with considerable experience in relating to students. It will not be necessary to plan detailed programs for introducing the interviewer to the world of the interviewee. The greatest need for training will be in conveying the spirit of the interview, its goals and rationale, its logic within the overall program.

But the skills of interviewing derive from practice and from attention to the interview process. There is a great deal of activity competing for the attention of the faculty-interviewer. There is a need to refocus attention on the interviews as a component of the assessment program. The checklist of procedures is a list of basic steps. The goal of training, then, might be seen as the goal of insuring that the interviewers accomplish these steps. Precisely how this is done will vary from institution to institution. The following approaches may be elements of a given situation:

1. Some one person may be asked to take special responsibility for interview procedures and forms.
2. Selected taped sequences of interviews may be developed as standards for training raters and as examples of techniques for handling problems.
3. Practice interviews greatly help interviewers to understand the process and the associated materials that must be worked with to facilitate a smooth performance. An advanced student, already interviewed, can serve as the practice subject.
4. A statement of goals and guidelines for the interview may be prepared. This will constitute a manual for interviewing, incorporating the goals established in the stages of conceptualization and specification and offering an appropriate adaptation.

The value of training probably cannot be overstressed. Technical steps such as structuring interviews, videotaping them, or arranging them in sequential order cannot compensate for problems created by untrained interviewers. Practice interviews greatly facilitate smooth performances. Since most interviews in the interpersonal area will be semistructured, there is a need to formulate broad general principles to guide interviewers in coping with interviewees' free-form behavior.

In considering the dual aspects of communication process and content, however, it is possible that attention will focus too much on process—that is, in the interview, interviewee behaviors are in some way determined by interviewer behaviors. The variation or control of interviewer activity, in trying to get a sense of interviewee response, is a natural and attention-consuming component of the interview. But the information aspect of an interview is perhaps more important than the process aspect. It is a tenet of the approach to competence in this CAEL project that competence is identified by outcomes, by goal-oriented behavior. Interpersonal characteristics and skills are competences if they can be directed in the service of goals. In interviewing the student who has returned from foreign travel, for example, the focus must be on specific problems of living aborad, which can be solved or avoided by means of the hypothesized competence. This appraisal of behavior in terms of what it can do for the individual is an important theme, and it is a content theme for the interviewer. What happened abroad is, in a sense, more important than what happens in the interview. As tempting as it is to strive for a virtuoso interview performance that will in turn elicit insight-producing interviewee behavior, the interviewer should be trained to remember that the content evaluation with its emphasis on things that have happened outside the interview is even more important. The thrust of the interview should focus on the content of the interviewee's interpersonal experience with one relentless question: What evidence is there that the candidate's behavior has made a difference? What evidence is there that other behavior, less skillful, would have caused problems? Only when behavior is judged by the criterion that it makes a difference can it be evaluated as competent or not.

The training program need not stop with the interviewer. The interviewee should be prepared for the sessions also. Obviously this preparation cannot become so complex as to distort the natural performance of the person, but interviewees can be prepared for the interview by a training program that insures that they have read instructional and preparatory material, have listened to or read samples of interviews, and are familiar with the scope and spirit of the interview inquiry. Particularly because the concepts of the interpersonal domain can be abstract, the interviewee must be given an opportunity for recall and organization prior to the interview, so that the interview must center on specific outcomes. It is useful to integrate interviewing with other elements of the skills appraisal program. Exposure to discussion groups centering on the problems of crediting skill in this area will lead to a clear conception of the program. In any case, the candidate should receive some preparation or training for the interviews in order to maximize the information available to evaluators.

Conducting Interviews

The subject of specific techniques for conducting interviews is too extensive to be adequately covered here. However, a checklist of the major steps of the interview procedure that follows is intended to facilitate the preparation of adequate interviews. It is based, in part, upon material presented in the CAEL publication on the use of expert judgment in the assessment of experiential learning.[26] Readers are encouraged to secure this related material or to read some of the bibliographic references if they are unfamiliar with formal rationales for interviewing practice. This checklist that follows is oriented toward the interpersonal domain, but few problems with interviews are unique to that domain. General materials on the use of interviews will be broadly applicable.

A Checklist of Interview Procedures in Assessing Interpersonal Competence

I. Prior to the Interview

The following steps are a basic set of procedures that can markedly improve the quality of interviews. It may seem difficult, in the midst of a busy schedule, to carry out these steps systematically. Nonetheless, each of them contributes to the avoidance of problems. Successful interviewing takes time, and that requirement of time cannot be avoided.

A. Schedule the interview so that there is time available both before and after the actual dialogue. Be certain this is true for the interviewee, also. Approximately one-half hour is needed in each case. Securing such time in a busy day is no easy matter, but its importance for a maximally effective interview cannot be overstressed. Interviewing demands attention and a mind that is undistracted, and only a period of preparation can insure this. Furthermore, the results of interview-gathered impressions are easily lost to memory, and they are best committed to paper immediately.

B. Establish a fixed maximum duration for the interview and be certain that the interviewee knows what it is.

C. Arrange for the recording of the interview by audio- or videotape.

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[26] Richard R. Reilly et al., *Expert Assessment of Experiential Learning—A CAEL Handbook.*

D. Arrange for a suitable setting for the interview. Privacy, freedom from interruption, comfortable seats are all desirable characteristics.

E. Familiarize yourself with any formal rating materials you may be required to use; be prepared to distribute and discuss materials which the interviewee is expected to use.

F. Prepare or review the structured interview schedule. This is the formal program of questions to which you will adhere throughout the interview. Do not depend upon questions which you must contrive in the course of the interview itself.

G. Review the information base provided by the interviewee. This will typically be a checklist and/or an autobiographical document. Integrate this information into the structured interview schedule.

H. Provide the interviewee with preparatory communications about the interview and its role in the overall assessment process.

II. During the Interview

A. Allot approximate time periods for each of four activities:

1. Warm-up
2. Information building
3. Evaluation
4. Closing

Adhere to this schedule, recognizing that each activity is a required component of a successful interview.

B. Begin the interview with a warm-up that attempts to put the interviewee at ease, to establish your own identity as a person, and to suggest that the central aim of the interview is the gathering of information of quality rather than any goal of covering everything in precisely the allotted time. Some useful devices for a warm-up include:

1. Anecdotes that establish that others have gone through the process.
2. Remarks that serve to diminish any lawyer-witness or cross-examination characteristics of the interview.
3. Remarks that indicate that the interviewer is aware of and interested in the interviewee as a person and not just as a candidate for credit.
4. Remarks that restate the purpose of the interview, the goals of the interviewer, and what is expected of the interviewee.

C. Following the warm-up, move to information gathering. Select as initial topics ones that are relatively easy but permit or encourage the interviewee to talk at some length.

D. As the interview progresses, move to harder questions and introduce more critical questions. Avoid questions that challenge what the interviewee has said. An example of a critical question might be, "Who decided which clients you would counsel?" This question probes at the level of prescription and discretion that was allowed.

E. Do not challenge the candidate's statements, even if some seem ambiguous. It is important to defer any questions of the adequacy of a particular statement and to return to the subject later for amplification. Asking questions for clarification, of course, is to be expected on the part of both the interviewer and the interviewee.

F. Ask the interviewee for suggestions as to ways to secure external validation of the experience on which credit is to be based. What persons can be written to? Do documents exist?

G. Avoid an abrupt closing of the interview. Summarize the exchange, discuss the need to review the record of the interview, mention the related steps in the assessment process. If the candidate is asked to prepare a formal reaction to the interview, review the procedures and forms to be used. Discuss any decisions which will be made, stressing the timetable for events. You cannot provide instant decision, or even a likely appraisal, but you can review the next steps.

III. After the Interview

Interviews are not, in a sense, over until they are established as record. The following steps require time, but they greatly enhance the value of the record.

A. Immediately after the interview write up a formal record, to complete the records, etc.

B. Allow some time to elapse (24 to 48 hours), then review your written records. Return to the taped record, if necessary, to verify information or to expand your written summary.

C. Summarize the outcome in terms of recommendations pertaining to either the granting of credit or the securing of additional information. These recommendations may include additional interviews, steps in the validation of experience, or suggestions for specific interpersonal appraisal activity, such as simulations, leaderless group discussions, etc.

The checklist of interview procedures covers the most basic essentials of planning and conducting an interview. It can only suggest the attention that should be given to preparation and to careful execution of the planning. The information gathered in the interview will be basic to the decisions concerning credit, and in many cases interview-based information will be predominant in the decision process. It is possible to conduct interviews without the level of attention that is suggested here, but the results are less satisfactory to both the students and to the institution.

Applications of Interviews

Interviews provide extensive information about interpersonal qualities. If the questions are well written, if the structured schedule is faithfully adhered to by the interviewers, and if interviewer training and motivation is adequate, a strong base for decisions is created.

But interview data is voluminous, complex, and idiosyncratic. It works upon the interviewer in various ways, so that every interview has a unique quality. Summarizing all of this material is a major task. There must be some pulling together of material for a practical program.

A brief summary of several paragraphs, prepared by the interviewer, is essential. This summary should give the principal reactions of the interviewer, pointing out the key or unusual features of the exchange, offering impressions and judgments, and in general providing a narrative account of the interview.

The decision purposes, however, of the interview will often be summarized in ratings based upon the interview. These ratings can be completed by the interviewer in relatively little time immediately after the session.

The scales, which are rated, will vary depending upon the purposes of the interview and may vary in their emphasis on theory or behavior, for example. No set of scales will be suitable for each institution. Four sets of sample scales are shown below.

Sample Scales for Evaluating Aspects of Interviews of Counselors

Factor 1 - Knowledge of Counseling Methods and Procedures

Level 5 Has a broad knowledge of many insights; can critically evaluate methods; governs own counseling technique in terms of these critical appreciations

Level 4 Has a working knowledge of certain methods in some depth. Approaches them intellectually, with limited evaluation or personal integration of them.

Level 3 Knows the basic elements of one or two methods fairly comprehensively. Tends to accept these somewhat as doctrine. Not sensitive to lack of knowledge of other methods.

Level 2 Some basic theoretical knowledge. Can identify leading writers by name. No true picture of any given system.

Level 1 Little evidence of knowledge of or prior thought concerning counseling procedures.

Factor 2 - Motivation to Help Others

Level 5 Assistance to others is a governing principle for the conduct of life. Opportunity to assist is consistently sought. Challenging situations are accepted readily.

Level 4 Assistance to others is a substantial base for self-esteem. Choice of occupation will be based at least partially on this drive.

Level 3 Enjoys helping others and accepts involvement in activities that offer opportunities in this direction.

Level 2 Recognizes the need to help others and to devote attention to them. Does not sustain a drive in this direction. Tends to set an upper limit on this kind of activity.

Level 1 Little evidence of motivation to help others.

Factor 3 - Communication Skills

Level 5 Excellent skills. Communicates clearly, effectively. Demonstrates precision, sensitivity to the requirements of recipients.

Level 4 Possesses a solid capacity to communicate. Can handle a variety of situations, with only occasional errors.

Level 3 Communicates with few problems on basic matters that are well understood. Needs practice in a specific situation to facilitate communication through familiarity.

Level 2 Communicates at a minimum level. Cannot function in complex situations. Lacks verbal or conceptual vocabulary, experience in dealing with others.

Level 1 Is quite ineffective in communication. Is likely to be misunderstood, or to leave the recipient uninformed or frustrated.

Factor 4 - Overall Effectiveness as a Counselor

Level 5	Is fully effective in a broad variety of situations. Can supervise others. Can cope with very unusual circumstances.
Level 4	Has well established skills with which to function autonomously. Can give guidance to others. Refers only a relatively small proportion of the more difficult problems to others.
Level 3	Functions under minimum supervision, but restricts activity to a defined set of problems.
Level 2	Can work with simple problems and uncomplicated clients. Should receive supervision to maintain effective relationships, even in these restricted situations.
Level 1	Likely to be quite ineffective as a counselor. Lack of knowledge of others, of self, and of counseling approaches will rule out success.

The significant feature of such scales lies in the description of behaviors that characterize the various levels. It is difficult to reduce complex behaviors to such very brief paragraphs. There is a natural tendency to avoid the description of behavior and retreat to simple objective scales: poor, adequate, good, excellent. But these scales are not well-anchored. They are interpreted in various ways by various people. Scales that briefly rate specific behavioral criteria work much better.

The behavioral descriptions are difficult to create. If they are lengthy, they are cumbersome to work with. If they are brief, they are unreliable and invalid. Some middle ground must be reached. The sample scales included here are perhaps somewhat shorter than scales that might be used in a specific situation, but the approach is clearly demonstrated. Do not ask for a rating in terms of vague levels of excellence. Rather, cite such principal dimensions of the skill as level of autonomy in function, or specific knowledges of authors.

Scales for the evaluation of interviews are an important component of their success. Every interview should lead to a set of ratings based upon such scales. Periodically the ratings should be examined statistically to see that they are reasonably consistent and reliable, and whether there is any need to modify the forms used or to conduct special training sessions.

The work of devising scales, while difficult, frequently aids in the clarification of the goals and values of the program. The quest for critical behaviors that distinguish among levels of ability is frequently productive of many insights into sought-for outcomes. Scale definition can be confidently undertaken for this reason as well as for the need to develop operational procedures.

The interview is most frequently seen as a one-to-one situation, but there are variations on this format. In the group interview, a number of persons are interviewed by a single interviewer; in the panel interview, a number of interviewers ask questions of a single interviewee. Occasionally a group of interviewers may meet with a group of interviewees. However, the advantages of structuring under such conditions are reduced. The principal values come from a capacity to satisfy the needs of a number of different parties, to permit an efficient exchange of information by broadening the number of listeners. These values are best attained by permitting a fair amount of flexible, unstructured questioning.

Multiple-person interviews can be excellent as exploratory interviews in which faculty and students meet to review the general approach to the crediting of interpersonal experience. Such initial exchanges, because they are somewhat more free-form than the later evaluation interviews, can provide for a general understanding of the goals and standards of the program and can set the stage for later follow-up. It is well to review any checklist that may be distributed at such interviews to be certain that they are understood. Similarly, if rating forms and material are to be used or introduced, they should be reviewed by the interview leader during the session.

Sequential interviews are a useful strategy for assessment. In a sequential approach, an initial interview is followed by a second one that is structured or defined after the interviewer has made a study of the first. The first interview leads to hypotheses and judgments as to areas of interpersonal competence or limitation; the second interview is specifically designed to clarify any issues. For example, it may be apparent, in listening to a taped record of an interview, that a certain response was ambiguous; a following interview can focus on this point, clarifying and building on it. Sequential interviews may be more informative if they are conducted by a number of different interviewers. This makes it natural to repeat a certain amount of the material without a feeling that the interviewer is checking on something that came to light in the first interview. Such checking or verification, however, is an essential value of the sequential approach.

It is generally wise not to space the interviews too far apart, and it is equally wise not to conceal the second interviewer's knowledge of the first interview. No hard and fast rules can be given, but seven to ten days between interviews is about the right amount of time in terms of retaining a certain freshness or currency to the discussions. The second interview can begin with a frank statement to the effect that it is intended to supplement the first and is in part based upon it. In fact, the logical relationship between interviews is something that can be stressed.

If possible, the interviewee should have access to the record of the first exchange. This will permit the second interview to begin on a more balanced basis.

In recommending interviewee access to the *record* of the first interview, it is not intended that this be access to the evaluations or private notes of the interviewer, but to the audio- or videotape. There is great benefit to securing post-session reactions and ratings from the participants. Interviewees should be encouraged to analyze and evaluate their own behavior during the interview. Such qualities as clarity of response, openness, and comprehensiveness of answers can be rated by the interviewer and in addition self-rated by the interviewee. In fact, securing interviewee opinion of, and reactions to, the interviewer behavior may be helpful, particularly in the use of sequential interviews. This cannot be in the form of ratings of interviewer effectiveness, but candidates can be asked whether they feel that all areas have been covered.

Application of the principles of Interaction Process Recall (IPR) may also be considered in the interview process.

IPR is a technique that provides participants with an opportunity to relive experience and to relate their thoughts and feelings at the time of the actual experience. As developed by Kagan,[27] it requires a videotaping of the initial experience, and then a subsequent session with a trained "inquirer." The approach has been used extensively in the training of people who must work with people:

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[27] Norman Kagan, "Can Technology Help Us Toward Reliability in Influencing Human Interaction?"

counselors, physicians, case workers, etc. The effectiveness of such techniques under conditions that depart from the established procedures is difficult to establish. Whether the use of an audiotape record alone would be sufficient, for example, cannot be stated with certainty. It would seem, however, that asking the interviewers and interviewees to attempt to relive the interviews and describe their inner feelings may provide rich insights into behaviors.

Whether or not the elaborate methods of IPR are attempted, some sort of feedback to the interviewee is essential. This feedback should be twofold—evaluating the communication values of the interview and evaluating the content values. The communication values are the ratable behaviors during the interview—speech, manner, etc. The content variables are the substantive interpersonal experiences discussed in the course of the interview. These are invaluable as evidence of interpersonal competences. Does the interview tend to support the claim that the managerial experience was sufficiently involved and meaningful to warrant academic credit? Sometimes answers to such questions will not be adequate on the basis of the interview exchange only, but further documentation will be needed about the number of people managed, the scope of responsibility assumed, etc. This need for further information to assist the assessment can be a valid feedback to the interviewee.

The sample structured interview shown below served as the nucleus for the comparative study of interviewing and role playing that is reported in CAEL Validation Study A2.[28] Although it was modified and adapted somewhat to meet the requirements of individual institutions, it functioned reasonably well, as indicated by median reliabilities of .71 for ratings based on the interview.

A Sample Structured Interview for Counseling

1. Tell me about the type of counseling you have done (setting, types of client, etc.)
2. What kinds of people have you counseled?
   a. What was the range in age?
   b. Were there both males and females among the people you counseled?
   c. From what racial, social, and religious groups did they come?
3. How many people do you estimate that you have counseled?
4. How did you learn counseling?
5. What skills would you identify as necessary for success in your type of counseling?
6. Can you specify what personal characteristics you think an effective counselor must possess?
7. What kinds of problems have your counselees brought to you (educational, parent-child, occupational, sexual, drug-related, etc.)?
8. Can you give me a specific example of a problem that was brought to you?
9. How do you get started in a counseling session?
10. Do you have any particular way of opening up a counselee who does not seem able to tell the whole story?

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[28] Willingham et al., *The CAEL Validation Report*, pp. IV-18—IV-33.

11. Do long silences occur in your counseling sessions? How do you handle them?
12. How long do your sessions tend to be?
13. How do you close a counseling session?
14. How many sessions do you usually have with one counselee?
15. How do you tell if a series of counseling sessions is finished, and how do you end it?
16. To what extent do you suggest plans and activities to your counselees?
17. To what extent do you explain to a counselee what you think causes his or her problems?
18. How would you describe your personal counseling style?
19. What makes your style effective or ineffective?
20. How frequently do you refer your counselees to other sources of assistance?
    a. To what sources?
    b. For what services?
    c. How do you decide when to refer?
    d. To what extent do you follow up on your referrals?
21. How frequently have you had experience in counseling more than one person at a time?
    a. How many persons were in the typical group?
    b. What kinds of persons were in the typical group?
    c. How is your counseling approach in a group different from your approach with an individual?
    d. What is the single greatest difference between group counseling and individual counseling?
22. If you had to specify one skill that the majority of your clients lacked, what would it be?
23. Are there any consistent behavior patterns that recur from client to client that you can identify?
24. Do you feel that you perform any general counseling behaviors that are applicable to all cases or counseling situtations?
25. If a client does not respond to your methods over several weeks, what do you do?
26. Has there ever been a client you could not counsel?
    a. If so, what did you do, and why?
27. If you had to identify three characteristics that make some counselees open to counseling, what would they be?
28. Do you ever do a self-assessment of your performance?
    a. How often?
29. What standards or criteria for assessing your own counseling performance do you use?
30. What criteria or frame of reference do you use to measure a client's progress?
31. Have you had your counseling assessed by any others?
    a. Were their criteria the same as yours?
32. If you had to specify one skill that you need to improve or sharpen most in relation to your counseling, what would it be?
33. What kind of training do you think a new counselor in your setting should have?
34. What, if anything, have you learned about yourself through your counseling experience?

35. To what extent has your own life experience contributed to your effectiveness as a counselor?
36. How do the characteristics of a counselor affect the approach to counseling that he is likely to follow?
37. How important is it for the counselor to be like the counselee in age, sex, race, etc.?
38. To what extent should counselors specialize in types of problems, like marital problems, drug-related problems, etc.?
39. What specific theories and methods do you use most often in counseling?
40. Do you follow the counseling approach of any particular author?
41. What are the goals of your job as specified by your superiors?
42. Do you think that counseling will be (remain) your life's work?
43. What is the hardest part of counseling?
44. What is the most satisfying part of counseling?

VIII. Assessment Strategies: Additional Techniques

The techniques discussed so far are the basic core approaches that will most probably be confronted by students and that may be sufficient in a majority of cases for the granting of credit. The core contains reasonably balanced emphases on such aspects of the process as the level of student participation, the documentation of experience, the evaluation of the level of experience, the demonstration of inductive generalization from experience, and a direct sample of the student's interpersonal behavior in the interview. Where the evidence from all these various approaches is consistent and unambiguous, determinations can probably be safely reached.

The remaining approaches are useful adjuncts to this set of techniques. Three of them (topical essay, objective test of knowledge, and content analysis) do not focus on any specific sample of student behavior. The other three (group discussion, simulation, and work sample) do have this focus. The first three may have a common characteristic in that they can be useful in the confirmation of an intellectual integration of experience. The latter three would seem to have the characteristic that they provide direct institutional confirmation of the existence of creditable competence by, in effect, asking the student to demonstrate it.

There are other values to these techniques, also, and these will frequently determine their applicability to an individual case. Group discussions, for example, have training values as well as assessment characteristics. Since many sponsored programs will be developed in such a way that some on-campus experience is associated with the off-campus learning, discussion groups may be a part of the appraisal process because they are easily organized. In the case of objective tests of knowledge, it may be appropriate to administer these examinations in order to articulate the efforts of theory-oriented classroom instruction and experience-oriented field learning. In any case, the student portfolio is enhanced by the presence of the kinds of additional evidence that these approaches provide.

TOPICAL ESSAY

The topical essay by the student focuses on some selected aspects of the skill cluster in question. In the companion *Student Guide*, there is an example of a possible topical essay assignment which would focus on alcoholism as a managerial problem. Additional examples are easy to develop. A student who seeks credit for competence in instruction derived from experience in teaching adult evening education courses in woodworking may be asked to prepare a paper on the psychological factors to be considered in providing instruction to adults or older learners. These essays would be similar in some cases to the type of summary paper that is a component of traditional, classroom education. But the unique feature will be the heavy reliance upon student experience to illuminate and enrich the paper. As the principles are developed, specific experiential events that demonstrate their application will be cited.

The paper will often be defined in relation to a specific body of readings. The faculty adviser may recommend these readings, or the student may nominate them. But the content of the paper will not constitute simply a review of these readings. It will be an intersection, in a sense, of the theory in the reading and the practice in the student's experience. This is an important characteristic for the topical essay. At other points in the evaluation process (in the interview, for example), there is an opportunity for the student to present evidence of integrated generalizations derived from experience and broadly applicable to it. In the topical essay, however, there is a greater opportunity for demonstration of such qualities than in any of the other approaches. Particularly in marginal cases where there is more concern about student understanding than there is about the reality of the experience, the assignment of a topical essay will be appropriate.

The evaluation of the topical essay can proceed in ways not unlike those of any academic paper. A faculty member or outside expert can be asked to evaluate it. Guidelines for this evaluation will closely resemble the general guidelines for assessing written work. Because of the need to consider the personal and experiential dimension of the paper, those who are asked to evaluate it should be given a statement of the overall goals of the program. Furthermore, if several reviewers are asked to provide reactions to the essay, some of them should have a more or less specific understanding of the external situation that is the source of the experience. The paper developed by the person who conducted classes in an adult evening education school could be evaluated by the director of that school, for example.

OBJECTIVE TESTS OF KNOWLEDGE

Achievement or knowledge tests in the area of interpersonal skills are difficult to establish. They can, therefore, offer only limited service in appraisal. However, they should not be rejected outright, particularly those knowledge tests that call for judgments about decisions. Such tests typically present brief cases or situations and follow them with a number of optimal ways of dealing with the problems they present. An individual's choices are compared with the selections determined by expert judgment, and the score is based on the total number of right answers.

Such a score must be carefully interpreted. One of the great difficulties with personal assessment, of course, is that it is extremely difficult to obtain agreement on what precisely constitutes effective behavior. There is a tension, as it were, between the needs of the self, and of self-actualization, and the needs of others. It is not always true, for example, that individuals who are experiencing some difficulty in relating to other individuals are less skillful. There may be a factor in the situation that is inimical to their effective functioning. They may be creative people, or dedicated people; they may simply be more honest people. The outcomes of interpersonal behavior are not necessarily social smoothness. What is difficult, then, is to devise an appraisal system that objectively talks about a knowledge of interpersonal skills and at the same time respects the rights of individuals to hold these skills in ways which are unique unto themselves.

A test of judgment must be seen from this perspective. The right answers as determined by experts can only be best answers if there are reasonable assumptions as to what are typical conditions that obtain. An example of good management in dealing with a worker who fails to observe regulations will assume that the worker is not handicapped or medicated, or in any other way has special characteristics that would complicate the judgment.

If these factors are kept carefully in mind, the case-study objective examination can be of great value in self-appraisal. Although it can only be supplementary to other techniques, it has the advantage that it can be taken privately and discussed and reviewed as part of the program of personal development. Such examinations are most commonly developed for specific roles; the most extensive examples are probably in the areas of managing and instructing.

A distinctive feature of the objective knowledge examination, particularly of those already available, is often the existence of norms to assist in the establishing of standards. Although normative information cannot determine a decision, the demonstration that a student's "management judgment" score exceeds that of 90 percent of a similar group of managers will be a meaningful element in the portfolio of relevant material.

DISCUSSION GROUP SESSIONS

Discussion groups can take many forms and are of great interest in interpersonally-oriented education. A great deal of work has been done on one type of group, the Leaderless Group Discussion (LGD), one of the most promising approaches to the assessment of interpersonal skills. As its name applies, it is a multiperson discussion situation, affording a number of opportunities for the observation of interpersonal behavior in the course of the discussion. It has proved of great value in assessing such characteristics as leadership ability, oral communication skills, and empathy. It has been used in selection programs for a variety of roles that demand interpersonal effectiveness, including military officers, civil service supervisors, teachers, and social workers. As a research technique, it has focused on the outcomes of counseling and on the selection of trainees for clinical psychology.

The essence of the method is to assemble a group of subjects, to assign a topic, usually in the form of a problem, and to call for a solution or terminal recommendation after a specified time. Usually examiners are present to rate each person's performance, but they do not participate in the discussion. The LGD may be more or less structured, depending on the assignment of specific responsibilities by the examiner or the acceptance of some "natural" organization within the group. If the LGD is carried out with assigned roles, these usually center on the possession of some special information or on the need to achieve certain goals, which are privately established by the examiner for each participant. Thus, in an LGD on the merits of a fluoridated water supply, one participant can be told to be against the practice on the grounds of cost; another to be against it on the grounds of invasion of privacy; a third might be told to be in favor of the measure because of reduced incidence of dental problems. Often participants are provided with data that can be used to bolster their particular position, e.g., facts on the incidence of dental cavities in different communities, etc.

If the LGD is unstructured, the "natural" tendencies of the group are accepted, and no specific instructions are provided on how to behave. Instead, the group evolves its own procedures and a status hierarchy (elects someone to chair the meeting, for example) without direction by the examiner. The opinions held, the positions taken are determined by the individual characteristics of the participants.

There is merit to each approach. When assignments are given, the individual can try a variety of purposeful skills within the context of the meeting, for a fairly specific personal goal has been established. When no assignments are given, the individual's performance may be a better sample of the characteristics personal approach to group participation; it may be more natural.

The dimensions of behavior that can be gathered from the Leaderless Group Discussion are many and varied. Assertiveness, clarity of language, supportiveness, shyness, ego-sensitivity, and many other characteristics can be demonstrated. The dimensions will be somewhat controllable if the LGD is structured with assigned goals or roles. Thus, if the participants have been specifically instructed to present certain viewpoints that are assigned to them, there will probably be more assertive behavior as they seek to fulfill these goals. Other devices may be useful in controlling or governing participant behaviors. The appraiser, for example, could specifically instruct one participant to try to keep the conversation from lagging. Another might be instructed to help anyone else who seems uncomfortable. Such specific instructions would probably influence the behavior, and provide more opportunity to see specific skills on the part of certain candidates.

A number of variations of the characteristics of the LGD are possible. For example, the size of a group is important but no absolute limits can be prescribed. There have been studies of leaderless "groups" as small as two persons. In general, however, the observations drawn about people in such small groups tend to have less stability or generalizability than those drawn from their participation in larger groups. This reflects the greater variability in the specific compatibilities among individuals in a small group, as opposed to the more generalized interpersonal behavior and adjustment in the larger groups. In very small groups the behavior of the others may be less varied, placing limits on what can be demonstrated by any one subject. It suggests that LGD sessions of from four to eight persons are optimal.

The setting for the discussion is a factor in the behaviors elicited. When the meeting assembles in a comfortable lounge area, the exchange will generally be more informal. When the meeting is convened in a conference setting, with a table and other business-like furnishings, more formal discussions result. The choice of setting, then, will be influenced by the type of skill to be measured. Certain types of persuasion or negotiation might be facilitated by the informal setting, whereas the emergence of a group-designated leader might be facilitated by the formal setting.

The degree of previous familiarity among the participants is another variable to consider. No generalizations can be developed for this dimension, except perhaps the obvious one that participants will bring to the meeting their previously developed interpersonal antipathies or compatibilities. If these previously established relationships are known to the assessor, groups may be specifically selected in order to observe the behavior of candidates in dealing with the special characteristics that the past connections bring to leaderless situations. Candidates A and B, known not to adapt easily to each other, can be given mildly opposite assigned roles and observed for their skills in participation.

Obviously, the topic or problem established for the group is an important variable for controlling the characteristics of the LGD. In the CAEL *Compendium of Assessment Techniques*[29] the example is given of an LGD that centered on the problem of allocating political party funds to party candidates for office. In such a task each participant is assigned a candidate, and the goal of the participant is to win the largest amount of funds for his or her candidate. Such a task fosters a mild competition. One would anticipate that it would be easy to find a nonsupportive environment resulting from the pressure of the task. Suppose, instead, that the LGD is to center on the devising of a campaign for establishing a recycling center in a small town, and that the group is to draft the essentials of the campaign. In this context, without assignments, supportive exchanges might more naturally arise; there is not the problem of competition for finite resources that is involved in the other example.

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[29] Knapp and Sharon, *Compendium*, p. 15.

Negotiation, persuasion, communication, and leading are the main interpersonal skills in the LGD. Since there is no clearly established status hierarchy, the skills of managing, supervising, instructing, and consulting must be inferred. It is possible, however, to create discussions that afford more appropriate opportunities for these behaviors. Instructing or consulting behaviors can be simulated by creating a group that has a problem demanding specific knowledge or expertise which only one member of the group possesses to the extent required. In such a situation, the greater expertise should naturally reveal itself early in the discussion, and the stage is set for a quasi-consultative relationship between this individual and the others. Patterns of participation in such specially-structured groups will often be of great interest.

The foregoing comment points to the need to attend not only to the content of the problem and to the composition of the group but to relationships between problem and group. This principle can be expanded in a number of ways. Groups can be composed of participants of widely varying ages, and the topic can center on devising a retirement program for a hypothetical corporation. The special interplay of the ages as they confront the topic would reveal a great deal about interpersonal competence. Similar remarks can be made for a group varying in sex and marital status if they are asked to consider criteria for some marriage-linked phenomena such as divorce or alimony.

The various potentials of the LGD situation are useful in exploring the varying dimensions of the interpersonal skills concept as set forward in the model in Chapter II and as implied in the definition of interpersonal literacy. The concept of competence as the ability to vary performance to meet the requirements of the situation is a central one. The LGD offers a situation with a fair degree of examiner control, of a potential for devising settings that are tailored to one emphasis or another. In both the training and the assessment of interpersonal skills, this characteristic should be of real value.

In assessing skills, it must be kept in mind that LGD is neither a straightforward simulation nor a work sample, though it tends to be more of the former. It has, however, characteristics of both. There are work roles for which the ability to contribute to group exchange is vitally important. Many problems of business and industry are resolved through committee interaction, frequently with weak or nominal leadership structure in the committee. For these situations, the LGD would seem to be a close approximation.

The validity of LGD behavior is a natural concern. Do people behave in an unnatural and/or contrived manner when they are in the sessions? The LGD is obtrusive, in the sense that the persons participating know that they are being observed. Questions as to the naturalness of their behavior, the extent to which they are influenced by the setting, are appropriate. To a surprising extent, the characteristic behavior of people is not adversely influenced by the appraisal setting. It is really not a simple matter to alter personal behavioral characteristics within the LGD in order to demonstrate some other, noncharacteristic pattern of performance. Those who in everyday life find it easy to speak up are those who find it easy to speak up in leaderless group discussions. Even if "speaking up" is considered to be of value, those who have difficulty doing it can seldom comfortably switch behavior and initiate it in LGD. In fact, when the method was being used for the appraisal of management trainees,[30] there was considerable concern on this point, a natural concern that, by simple training and coaching, some candidates for managerial positions could alter their behavior and temporarily shine in a LGD. In point of fact, when such coaching was attempted, it seemed to distort the candidates' normal rhythm of participation, and a forced and artificial performance resulted. With substantial reliability, this altered and noncharacteristic behavior was sensed by the observers and incorporated into their ratings. LGD performance is not as easily altered as feared.

The LGD produces a very large quantity of information. Records—tape recordings or videotapes—can be developed of virtually all of the actual behavior. But this extensive record can be very demanding in the analysis that is required in order to evaluate it. Fortunately, there are some available techniques for analyzing the information collected from interaction settings such as the Leaderless Group Discussion. A well-known one is that of Bales,[31] called Interaction Process Analysis.

Briefly, the Bales approach categorizes interactions into 12 categories, which are intended to be mutually exclusive and jointly exhaustive. That is, all behavior is considered to fall into one and only one of these categories. Accordingly, each behavior, as it occurs, is assigned to one of the categories. A given individual, therefore, will generate a variety of categorizable behaviors during the course of the discussion. A summary appraisal will be based on a consideration of the distribution of these various behaviors. Although this appraisal may indicate that a given individual exhibited behavior predominantly centered on one or two of the categories, the categories are not considered to be mutually exclusive for people but for specific behaviors. The 12 behavioral categories are as follows: all discrete remarks and behaviors are assigned to one of them.

1. Showing solidarity. Tending to raise some other person's status, offer help, approval, etc.
2. Showing tension release. Tending to divert attention from tension-producing areas in the discussion or interchange. Joking, laughing, smiling, etc.
3. Agreeing. Showing assent. Accepting, concurring, or complying with the behavior of another. Showing understanding.
4. Giving suggestions. Offering direction but with the implication that the person receiving the direction is autonomous and can accept or reject the direction.

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[30] Bernard M. Bass, "The Leaderless Group Discussion."

[31] R. F. Bales, *Personality and Interpersonal Behavior*.

5. Giving opinion. A broad category, including the expression of feelings and wishes, of evaluations, personal analyses, and desires.
6. Giving orientation. Providing information, clarification, or confirmation.
7. Asking for orientation.
8. Asking for opinions.
9. Asking for suggestions.
10. Showing disagreement. Rejecting or withholding cooperation.
11. Showing tension. Asking for help, withdrawing, frowning, looking glum, etc.
12. Showing antagonism. Making direct attacks upon some other person's status, or launching emotional defense of one's own status.

The Bales approach is extensive and more highly developed than can be presented here. It is his thesis that group activity tends to have at least a two-dimensional character, one of which is task-oriented, the other more feeling-oriented, in the sense of group solidarity, etc. He believes that leadership in the two goals of accomplishing a task and of maintaining group feeling is often assumed by different members of the group. Thus, the tension-releasing activity, the solidarity-voicing activity may be led by one person, while the giving of direction for the task may be supplied by another.

The Bales categories, although considered to be exclusive and exhaustive, have been revised by other researchers and can be revised in the context of the assessment of interpersonal skills in higher education. There is little need to accept them blindly. On the other hand, they offer a well-researched framework within which to begin to assess behavior.

The technique for observations using Bales-type approaches is a flexible matter. In general, when observers are seated a little behind a small group of discussants, they are sufficiently unobtrusive to be able to record the behavior without distorting the interactions of the group. It may be desirable, in some contexts, to isolate the observers, placing them behind one-way mirrors. Since the participants know they are being observed, there is no element of secrecy attached to this, but it may contribute to a somewhat more natural participation simply because the observers are not physically present.

Regardless of the observational approaches, it is desirable to make an audio or video recording of the behavior of the group. It is possible to extract considerable information about the group interaction by listening to an audiotape, although significant errors can be introduced through the information which is lost. The broader field of information supplied by the video recordings tends to make for greater reliability and validity. There is a certain amount of nonverbal communicating taking place within the dynamics of the LGD, and a video recording can capture significantly more of it than an audio record.

In analyzing the discussion, the value of reports by participants should not be overlooked. Participants have an excellent ability to recall what they were thinking when given the stimulus of a record of the discussion, which is the basis for Kagan's interpersonal training method, Interactive Process Recall. In IPR, subjects are shown video feedback on their interpersonal experience and asked to describe their thoughts at the time. The use of IPR significantly facilitates the development of an understanding of others and their inner feelings, by making it possible for participants to exchange reports of inner states after the fact. Participants can compare the reports with their own recollections of what they believed was going on during the session. The similarities and discrepancies pinpoint areas of interpersonal strength and weakness.

Even if a method as sophisticated as IPR is not used, there is great value in using reports and ratings by the participants, both of themselves and of other participants. Retrospectively, for example, the participants can rate themselves on scales based on the Bales system. To what extent, in the judgment of the participant, did he or she offer support, agreement, tension release, etc.? To what extent did the other participants, each considered in turn, demonstrate these behaviors?

This rating/reporting by the participants offers a useful confirmation of the ratings by observers. It permits the identification of individuals whose self-concept is quite different from the concept of them that others hold. It guards against errors of interpretation by the observers, in that the participants might perceive a certain behavior as simply asking for an opinion, whereas the observers saw it as a disagreement or antagonism.

A further reason for involving the participants in the postsession evaluation concerns the learning benefits that are derived from such work. There is a marked educational value to a thorough postsession analysis of a complex interpersonal experience such as LGD. The participant gets an opportunity to review behavior in a more intensive fashion and within the context of explicit, objective appraisals by others. The modification of behavior is rendered easier by the feedback process, with its abundant supply of specific reactions by others to the interpersonal behaviors that are demonstrated.

The approaches to LGD evaluations need not limit themselves to Bales categories. Other, more global, systems of appraisal are possible. Participants and observers can be asked more general questions concerning the entire sessions, such as the following:

1. Were the behaviors of the participants complementary to one another? Was there a socially cohesive and coordinated effort?
2. Did any group feeling evolve? A feeling of "belongingness"?
3. How were decisions reached in the group? Democratically? Autocratically?
4. Could group members deal openly with complaints and feelings?

A number of such questions are possible. They are, of course, translatable to forms that specifically center on the self or others. Thus, a person can be asked, "In your judgment was your behavior well-adapted to that of the others?" or "Did you feel at any time a sense of 'belonging' to the group?" The principle is to collect information from a variety of viewpoints and on a variety of aspects of the LGD.

The LGD is a flexible technique for the assessment of interpersonal skills. It is an approach with many attractive values in an assessment situation, where exercises and techniques can be sharpened over time through repeated use.

SIMULATION

There are occasions when the study of behavior in real life is unsatisfactory because the variables of interest are simply not under the control of the observer, or because it would be impractical to spend the amount of resources necessary. In these cases, something more controlled, more structured, something more in the nature of a laboratory experiment is demanded. A simulation is often the best resolution of the difficulties.

The comparative study of interview and role playing reported in CAEL Validation Study A2[32] demonstrates some of the positive qualities of this type of simulation. Ratings of counseling skill based on role-playing simulations were reasonably reliable—a median value of .69—and showed consistency with ratings based on simulated interviews. Study A2 also indicated that some students perform better during a simulation of an interview than during a role playing. It was not possible to determine whether the students themselves could predict which technique was likely to be better for them. The finding underscores the wisdom of having multiple techniques for assessment.

The simulation of interpersonal behavior is not without its problems. There is a legitimate need to be concerned about its results. A simulation is, at best, a partial replication of the real-world situation it parallels, and as such, it may sometimes lack the conditions of spontaneity that real-world situations have. In general, however, this concern about simulations is not substantially supported by the results of research. For example, the research of Weiss[33] has revealed that behavior during role-playing interpersonal encounters can significantly predict peer ratings of social behavior in contacts outside of the experimental situation. Note that this is consistent with the evidence on Leaderless Group Discussion, which is itself, in a sense, a quasi-simulation. Simulations offer many practical advantages by the controls they make possible on the time, place, and content of the interaction. They should be given serious consideration for appraisal in the interpersonal domain.

What can be simulated? There is little limit to what can be done. Management skills, for example, can be assessed by means of the In-basket Test, in which a number of managerial problems are dealt with in the context of a large volume of interpersonal communications. In an In-basket Test, as the name implies, the examinee plays the role of a fictitious manager. After an initial briefing, which provides background information on the characteristics of the organization, of the manager himself, and of the people around him, the examinee works through the contents of an in-basket, taking action on the collection of communications it contains. The particular communications are usually written, but someone role-playing the manager spot could receive a telephone call, a visit, or be asked to conduct a meeting, depending on the level of effort that the examiners seek to put into it. In managerial assessment centers it is a frequent practice to have a person role-playing the manager's secretary, and have others make "reports" to the "manager." Such simulations are often surprisingly life-like, and the content of the exchanges between participants closely parallels that of real-life situations.

Leadership was assessed in the Office of Strategic Services in World War II by asking the candidate to lead a team which had been given a specific goal. The team goal required the solution of a number of problems, drawing upon the strengths and weaknesses of the group. In some, for example, the group was asked to build a structure of some type such as a bridge. Analogous situations may be devised for academic settings. Negotiating and persuading can be simulated by gaming; watching participants play a business game may give a good sense of the negotiating skills a person possesses. Some rather good gaming situations have been devised by social scientists. Instructing and consulting also have potentials for simulation. In point of fact, micro-teaching, a widely used technique in the training and appraisal of teachers, has many elements of a simulation.

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[32] Willingham et al., *The CAEL Validation Report*, pp. IV-18—IV-33.

[33] R. L. Weiss, "Operant Conditioning Techniques in Psychological Assessment."

Like interviews, Leaderless Group Discussions and, indeed, almost any interpersonal technique, there is value to a record of the process. This opens the way for independent, objective assessments of competence after the event. Complex simulations, which demand rehearsal and elaborate settings, are not necessary. Improvised speech, which is spontaneously generated by role players, will serve surprisingly well—oftentimes better than scripted exchanges. Observations of such spontaneous speech and behavior can be very productive. What does the "manager" do and say? Is it tactful, adroit, purposeful? Is there evidence of knowledge of the managerial role? Even when the simulation is not very smooth or natural, there will still be productive evidence of competence, of ways of doing things that argue very well for competent performance in any real-life situation.

The appraisal of simulations should not be limited to observers. Participants, including the central candidate for assessment, should be invited to critique performance, along the lines of Interaction Process Recall if possible. There is a need to capture all of the facets of the situation, to report it as it was perceived from these facets, and to consider and review the implications of the similarities and differences. It can be extremely valuable to a student to consider differences between self-appraisals and those of others, and it can help examiners to hear explicit defenses of the individual's own interpretation of his or her behavior.

WORK SAMPLES

The evaluation of behavior as it is exhibited on the job or in the performance of a role is basically accomplished by the kinds of inquiries that were discussed in connection with ratings. As was pointed out there, this appeal to superiors, peers, subordinates, or clients for a systematic rating appraisal constitutes the most direct evidence that the student can perform the role to a level of skill that will meet the institutional standards. In this sense, work samples will be a part of the overall assessment picture for most students.

It will occasionally be appropriate, however, to secure an appraisal of the effectiveness of some concurrent sample of behavior, specifically selected for observation. Such a sample can validate the ratings of others and can permit institutional representatives to contribute to evaluations they could not ordinarily enter into. Such work samples are usually secured in the normal locations in which the student performs the role, but this does not necessarily have to be the case. A counselor could demonstrate interviewing skills in a center other than the one he or she works in, if this is necessary to a convenient schedule for the faculty observers. What is essential, if the work sample is not to be a simulation, is that the activity be directly purposive, that it be, in a sense, "for real," so that the communications and judgments that are given are binding in the same sense of being part of the work.

It will be difficult to achieve adequate work samples in many cases. Normal working conditions for many roles do not lend themselves to observation without distorting the situation itself. Observation by others tends to alter performance somewhat, in unpredictable ways which may be adverse to a successful assessment. In a counseling situation, for example, it may be less desirable to secure a work sample than to attempt a simulation, simply because the real-life clients of the counselor are made uncomfortable by the observation process and cannot behave in a natural manner.

In response to this type of distortion, it is sometimes possible to undertake unobtrusive measures. As described by Webb and his associates,[34] unobtrusive measures are observations that are made without the awareness of the individual being appraised. Their concept was not limited to individual assessments, but to the testing of a broad variety of hypotheses. Furthermore, they included as an example of an unobtrusive approach the type of analysis of records referred to in the next section of this chapter as content analysis. But they strongly advocated the values of the unobtrusive observation as a nondisturbing appraisal of a real-life situation.

Unobtrusive observations are basically of two types—intervening and nonintervening. In the nonintervening type, the observer simply arranges to be placed in a position to make the observation but does not alter the situation. Entering a salesroom as if one were a customer in order to observe the performance of a student in relation to some other party is an example of a nonintervening approach. Intervention comes when some characteristic of the situation is disturbed by the observer. For example, in a counseling situation, a confederate of the evaluator may arrange to play the role of a client. This confederate may be given a problem to discuss with the counselor, one which is specifically selected to match some examiner purpose.

It is obvious that unobtrusive measures have many advantages. There is a real-life worksample, and generalizations from it may be more acceptable than the outcomes of simulations, which often disturb people as having a game-like or playing quality. Then too, when intervention is possible, the examiner will have control of certain elements of the situation and can gain an impression of interpersonal behavior in the areas of greatest interest.

The principal difficulty with the unobtrusive measure is that it may be unfair to the student. In nonintervening approaches this is perhaps less worrisome, since a serious claim of competence at work is logically verifiable only if the work is observed, and since competence ought not to be something that varies in quality depending upon whether one is being observed for credit or not. But in the case of intervention, there is more of a quality of using the student, of deceit in an effort to make the observation. There are very interesting ways to appraise people through intervention, but there are also some obvious questions about suitable limits on what can be done. It will be well to consider unobtrusive approaches for their obvious merits, but to surround their use with institutional policy and practice that will prevent abuses or adverse reactions. The quantification of the outcomes of work samples is achieved by means of rating scales. In general, these will resemble the scales that are used in simulations or in the general appraisals of performance that are discussed in the core program.

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[34] Eugene J. Webb, David T. Campbell, Richard D. Schwartz, and Lee Sechrest, *Unobtrusive Measures.*

CONTENT ANALYSIS

Content analysis is a useful approach to evaluating skills in cases where there is an adequate body of written records. For example, the candidate may present experiences as a counselor, seeking evaluation of a creditable competence. If the records of the on-the-job reports by the candidate can be collected, they can be subjected to a content analysis. Is there evidence of any strong or weak spots in interpersonal problem-solving in these reports? Are they redundant? Do they show stereotyped thinking? Such analyses establish categories for breaking down a large body of language into manageable subparts. The result is a systematic test of a tacit hypothesis about interpersonal skills. For instance, are there more negative remarks than positive remarks in the reports? Do the reports indicate any bias toward or against certain kinds of counselees? Content analyses can provide valuable evidence for questions such as these.

It is probable that the analysis of such records will be known to the candidate, and it may even be suggested as a technique by the student. But note that the critical element is the absence of knowledge of assessment during the *performance* of the behavior. The counselor reports would have been written without any awareness that they would later be subjected to a systematic survey or content analysis, particularly without awareness that they would be specifically sifted for evidence of interpersonal skills. If they have this quality, they qualify as appropriate measures.

The general principles for a content analysis are broadly those of hypothesis testing by statistical sampling. The total domain of instances is reviewed for relevance to the determination of credit. For example, if the domain is the minutes of the meetings of an organization, these minutes that specifically mention the student may be defined as relevant. Then, with this domain, the implications of cases are defined and some global standard established. No precise standard can be formulated in advance. The student may have stated that he or she was deeply involved, as president of a community organization, in resolving internal tension within that organization during a time of crisis provoked by disqualification for Federal funding. How can the minutes of these meetings be evaluated to confirm the student's claim? Much depends on their quality.

It is reasonable to compare the frequency with which the student is cited in the minutes during the critical period with the instances of citation earlier or later. No precise number of references can establish which confirms or denies the hypothesis, but the record should show greater involvement during the period in question.

The foregoing survey of the basic techniques has attempted to present the general characteristics for each technique in the larger framework of an assessment program. The basic principle is one of a balanced set of measures, representing evidence in multiple forms and from multiple quarters, with adequate recognition of student rights to information input and to an understanding of the process. It has further been assumed, in developing the concept of the core program, that institutional resources in interviewer time and in other factors will constrain inquiry to these basic techniques in the majority of cases. A number of other considerations have surfaced in the review of techniques, two of which are singled out for discussion in the final chapter of this *Handbook*.

IX. Some Concluding Notes

Interpersonal skills differ from skills in the other broad areas of data or things in that the objects of the skill are other people who relate to the role player. A systems analyst or a physicist confront many problems in their respective fields, but in general they do not have to motivate or win the approval of the materials of their trade. Interpersonal skills are unique in this aspect.

This must be kept in mind when assessing in the interpersonal domain. There is a common tendency in conceptualizing interpersonal skills to see them from the standpoint of some central person, such as a manager or teacher. This primary person is figured on a diffuse ground of other people, with whom there is skillful, goal-directed activity. But the other people are less often perceived as possessing skills which complement those of the primary person. It is the viewpoint of this *Handbook* that such skills are extremely important. They are called reciprocal skills, whereas the usual behaviors are called primary skills. They must be attended to carefully when assessing more primary skills, and they may constitute creditable competences in their own right.

For every manager there is a subordinate or subordinates. For every teacher there is a learner or learners. Throughout the major skill clusters, there are dual dimensions to the interpersonal exchanges. It is one set of skills to be a good manager; it is another set of skills to be "successfully" manageable. It is one thing to teach; it is another thing to be teachable. The major focus in assessment is on the primary skills; the reciprocal skills must not be overlooked.

What behaviors do these skills encompass? One example, from managing, would be knowing when to report something to a superior. What unanticipated element of the work situation should the manager hear about? Which should be disregarded? What are the implications and interpretations of the manager's effort to define policy? How do you cope with the human limits of those in direction-giving or information-giving roles? Managers and supervisors are not always perfectly skillful. How do groups continue to work effectively towards a common goal when imperfectly led? In many cases the answer lies in the reciprocal skills of the subordinates.

Reciprocal skills require a fair knowledge of the primary skills. Appropriate classroom behavior—for example, helping the instructor out—demands a sense of the instructor's purpose and of any present difficulty there seems to be. Offering language clarification, framing a question about an ambiguity, all constitute social learner skills, as do a number of other aspects of behavior. Instructors recognize these student skills, and value them. Managers, likewise, appreciate reciprocal activity on the part of subordinates.

Closely intertwined with the concept of reciprocal skills are skills in maintaining group solidarity. As was cited in the review of the Leaderless Group Discussion, Bale's concept of group organization saw goal-oriented leadership as formally designated, but solidarity-oriented leadership as informally designated in another quasi-leader. The ability to play this role skillfully is a recognizable competence.

The dimensions of reciprocity should be recognized and interwoven with the appraisal of competence. In particular, it is appropriate to test for the candidate's sensitivity to these points. If a candidate presents managerial experience, it is appropriate to ask for appraisals of subordinates in terms of manageability. Because reciprocity is a pervasive and real element of the interactions, competent role players will be well aware of it and interested in using it for their own purposes.

One consequence of reciprocity is the clear need to conduct appraisals of the primary skills in settings that are not prejudicial to the demonstration of the skill. In World War II the Office of Strategic Services turned this element of interpersonal situations into a test of composure under stress. A candidate was asked to lead two others in assembling a piece of equipment. Unknown to the candidate, the "helpers" were confederates of the examiner, and their goal was to hinder the task along certain well-defined lines: distracting the leader, etc. The result was a very stressful situation, probably unfair as a measure of interpersonal skill but obviously effective for OSS purposes.[35] The implications of this for simulations, work samples, interviews, and leaderless groups seem clear—appraisals must be secured in contexts where there is a reasonable chance for adequate reciprocal skills. Performance of the primary skills is not independent of performances by others of the reciprocal skills.

To what extent are such skills creditable? They are less well-defined than the primary skills, and they are weaker in a salient dimension which is considered essential for competence—the dimension of goal-orientation. They tend to serve larger and more diffuse goals than the more specific, get-the-job-done skills of leadership or of negotiation. Nonetheless, they are essential elements of role performance. Counselors in agency contexts, for example, in order to be effective, must recognize the needs of their supervisors for certain critical behaviors in reporting events as they occur. Without this recognition of their own work as perceived by the supervisor, they are interpersonally ineffective in a fundamental way.

No discussion of these reciprocal skills was presented in the companion *Student Guide*. It is probable that students will advance demonstrations of reciprocal performance as evidence of interpersonal effectiveness. Their precise evaluation is likely to vary from individual situation to individual situation. A useful principle would seem to be that the demonstration of reciprocal skills can only contribute to credit if it occurs in a context where there is concurrent demonstration of more direct, interpersonal skills.

THE PROBLEM OF STRESS

The OSS task, referred to earlier, was intentionally a stress situation. The role of stress in such assessments is an important legal and ethical matter. To what limits may the examiners go in introducing stress into appraisals? The demonstration of interpersonal skills in everyday life is frequently accompanied by conditions of stress. Negotiating with an irate motorist after collision, demonstrating assertiveness in requesting the repair of damaged goods from a storekeeper are good examples. Rising in a town meeting to express a viewpoint with respect to the revision of waste collection procedures, or demonstrating the kinds of sophisticated skills that a trial lawyer demonstrates in a courtroom setting are other examples of interpersonal relationships that are carried out with varying amounts of stress.

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[35] U. S. Office of Strategic Services, Assessment Staff, *Assessment of Men*

Therefore, in interpersonal programs, the development of stress must be considered in order to create assessment outcomes that are generalizable to real-life situations. But, as in any case where people subject other people to assessment situations, there are ethical problems. These center on the right of the person to maintain self-respect and privacy as a person. There must be specified limits to the introduction of stress.

It is probable that the greatest ethical problems are encountered by examiners who seek to devise unobtrusive measures of work samples and who choose to intervene. That is, the use of confederates to act the part of a client referred for counseling in order to appraise counselor effectiveness. The behavior of such confederates must remain well within the normal boundaries of the situation if the candidates are to consider their treatment fair. There are a number of dramatic possibilities for appraising interpersonal effectiveness via contrived situations. For example, the confederate can feign certain kinds of problems, such as threatening suicide. It is doubtful, however, if such strategies have a place within programs for assessment, and they should be left to researchers. Similar remarks will obtain for simulations or for interviews and group discussions. Each of these situations has a certain "natural" amount and level of stress beyond which evaluations should not move.

EVALUATING ASSESSMENT PROCESSES

Throughout this *Handbook* the emphasis has been on defining the goals of interpersonal education and on designing techniques and programs for assessing progress toward these goals. The values of a workable assessment activity are many: it wins the acceptance, recognition, and confidence of accrediting agencies, institutional participants, and the general public. Experiential education is somewhat different from its classroom counterpart, particularly in the absence of close faculty supervision, and there is a need to demonstrate its contributions with clarity. For this reason, there must be an active effort at the evaluation of the assessment process itself.

Evaluation in measurement is often conceived of in terms of reliability and validity. Reliability is a statement about the extent to which the outcomes of measurement or assessment would be repeated if the method was applied again. Would the same score be attained, the same rating, or decision, etc., be made? Validity is a statement about the extent to which the outcomes of measurement or assessment agree with other information and make sense for the purpose at hand. Do the measures pick people who succeed in programs, or on the job? Do the measures relate well to other measures with which they logically should relate?

The evaluation of assessment approaches should be broadly thought of as including correlation coefficients, but by no means limited to them. It is true that correlations between scores or outcomes are the usual demonstration of measurement usefulness, but there are a number of definitions of validity, such as content or construct validity, for which an expert opinion on content or process characteristics may provide the necessary base for an evaluation.

Furthermore, the evaluation of assessment should cover not merely the question of whether a given assessment technique offers useful statistical information, but whether it is psychologically appropriate. Does it avoid undue anxiety-inducing stress? Is it reasonably economical in time and effort? Does it offer subsidiary benefit, such as learning, which can justify its costs? While psychometric characteristics are the fundamental considerations, there are a number of potential dimensions to be considered.

Whatever the dimensions of a particular evaluation, three questions are so basic as to require consideration in virtually every case.

1. Do we have evidence that the outcomes of assessment are more than just chance events? Would a given student receive roughly the same result if the assessment process were repeated?
2. Do the procedures seem to give results that are consistent with other evidence? Do procedures agree among themselves fairly well?
3. Is there evidence that the procedures are free of such negative outcomes as undue stress or anxiety? Is there any evidence of positive results, such as educational benefits from the procedures themselves?

The validation studies of interpersonal techniques which were reported by the CAEL project will oftentimes suggest useful models for activity within a specific institution. These studies considered a number of important dimensions of selected assessment procedures. Questions of the reliability of ratings of consistency between measures, of the educational value of assessment were addressed using evaluation models that can be adapted to the context of specific institutions. It is generally the case that someone proficient in data collection and data analysis is needed to advise on the design of a formal evaluation and to consult on the execution of specific steps. But the logic of evaluation itself requires little special training, and the results of evaluation can be presented in ways that are intelligble to a diverse audience. Thus presented, they serve to facilitate the general goals of acceptance for experiential programs. They offer concrete and objective evidence that the program for assessing interpersonal competence is proceeding on a high standard.

SUMMING UP

The development of this *Handbook* has made us very much aware of the many limitations confronting programs for the teaching or appraising of interpersonal skills. Nonetheless, we have been consistent in our belief that there is great value to the work in this area, and that the identification of creditable levels of performance and understanding is a possible goal.

As we state in the *Student Guide*, three main points have been fundamental to our writing. These are:

1. Appraisal for credit is appraisal for competence in solving problems or in reaching goals through performance of functional behaviors.
2. The student has a central role in the evaluation. Only the student can really know the experience. Institutional evaluation will proceed from evidence that is substantially provided by the student.
3. Assessment in the interpersonal domain demands the use of multiple techniques. No single source of information will determine the creditability of student learning from experience.

We have tried to adhere to these points, and to offer a rational framework within which to address the variety of problems that institutions establishing programs in this area must face. We cannot urge the reader too strongly, however, to take this *Handbook* as a starting point for a reading program which goes farther into the numerous subtopics we have examined. Complete books have been written about some of these topics, both in the theoretical analyses and in the survey of assessment strategies. We have tried for comprehensiveness and utility; we cannot attain completeness.

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Appendix A.
Descriptive Definitions of Major Interpersonal Skill Clusters*

Communicating

Observing the interactive behaviors of self and others through the senses of seeing, hearing, and touching. Assessing the feelings of self and others generated by the sensory data. Interpreting the meanings of the sensory data and the feelings of self and others. Being aware (i.e., understanding) of the intentions and goals of self and others. Selecting communicative behaviors congruent with the feelings, intentions, and interpretations of self and others.

Mentoring

Works with individuals having problems affecting their life adjustment in order to advise, counsel, and/or guide them according to legal, scientific, clinical, spiritual, and/or other professional principles. Advises clients on implications of analyses or diagnoses made of problems, courses of action open to deal with them, and merits of one strategy over another.

Managing

Controls, directs, and coordinates the relationships of individuals and groups under supervision. Works with individuals answering questions, airing concerns, and offering helpful information on how to improve behavioral problems affecting effective group functioning. Maintains flow of communication without interrupting unnecessarily. Respects other views and maintains rapport by not offending others' sensibilities. Keeps conversation on track and brings it to conclusion. Takes responsibility for efficient interaction of individuals and groups of individuals in order to achieve the stated objectives.

Leading

Works with groups of individuals establishing policies that will directly affect their behavior in a significant manner. Employs persuasion techniques to influence and motivate groups of individuals to trust in his/her judgment about the priorities and direction the group should take. Uses symbols familiar to the group to promote adherence to his/her policies, and controls any serious resistance with firm sanctions acknowledged by the group to be lawful extensions of leader's authority. Maintains group solidarity while accomplishing objectives with group cooperation.

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*Adapted from the works of Sidney Fine.

Negotiating

Bargains and discusses on a formal basis as a representative of one side of a transaction for advantages in resources, rights, privileges, and/or contractual obligations, "giving and taking" within the limits provided by authority or within the framework or the perceived requirements and integrity of a program.

Instructing

Teaches subject matter to others or trains others through explanation, demonstration, and testing.

Supervising

Determines and/or interprets work procedures for a group of workers; assigns specific duties to them (delineating prescribed and discretionary content); maintains harmonious relations among them; evaluates performance (both prescribed and discretionary) and promotes efficiency and other organizational values; makes decisions on procedural and technical levels.

Consulting

Serves as a source of technical information and gives such information or provides ideas to define, clarify, enlarge upon, or sharpen procedures, capabilities, or product specifications.

Persuading

Influences others in favor of a product, service, or point of view by talks or demonstrations.

Entertaining

Amuses or diverts or distracts individuals and/or audiences or lightens a situation.

Appendix B.
Specific Interpersonal Behaviors

Mentoring

- listens
- asks questions
- reflects feeling and informational responses
- guides conversation
- diagnoses and evaluates feelings and information
- feeds back diagnoses
- makes suggestions
- prescribes treatments and approaches to solving problems
- instructs: presents information, explains, gives examples
- forecasts possible outcomes, predicts consequences of alternative courses of action
- gives assurances and support
- motivates
- persuades and influences in favor of a point of view
- provides feedback and evaluation of progress
- makes new suggestions based on new information or circumstances

Managing

- sets goals and performance standards
- establishes communication channels
- promotes the free flow of two-way communication
- formulates policies and directs their implementation
- coordinates tasks, activities, and programs
- plans conferences
- makes decisions on personnel matters
- provides evaluation of progress
- prescribes alternative approaches to solving problems
- administers and implements the policies of supervisors
- allows others to lead
- takes responsibility for duties and tasks under jurisdiction

Leading

- establishes and implements performance standards
- sets group priorities
- persuades and influences in favor of a point of view
- promotes group trust and cohesion
- motivates
- employs authority to accomplish goals through cooperation of group
- maintains group harmony
- controls group behavior through use of sanctions and punishments
- determines the direction of the group
- makes decisions on policy and procedures
- solves problems by invoking symbols of his or her authority

Negotiating

- states and argues position
- bargains over terms
- instructs: presents information, explains, and gives examples
- advances proposals
- defends position with clear and coherent rationale
- answers objections
- presents alternative courses of action
- gives and takes in a trade-off of benefits
- argues against counterproposals
- discusses possible solutions
- defines goals and objectives
- offers counterproposals when original proposals are rejected
- reconciles opposing view points
- confronts opposing demands to clarify positions

Instructing

- listens to opinions and ideas
- presents lectures
- elicits and discusses theories and practices
- trains others in effective and cognitive principles
- uses demonstration and role-playing techniques to teach subject matter
- conducts seminars and workshops
- illustrates theories and principles through explanation and example
- tests and assesses knowledge and understanding of the problem-solving process
- answers question
- points out similarities and differences of viewpoints
- makes inferences about the cognitive behaviors of others

Supervising

- assigns tasks
- discusses subordinates' use of discretion
- explains operating procedure
- implements performance standards
- examines task outcome against stated criteria
- directs studies
- evaluates performance
- interprets results of task performance
- judges content and consequences of discretionary decisions
- sets task objectives
- assesses individual competence to perform a given task
- ensures performance standards necessary to achieve objectives

Consulting

- gives information and ideas based on experience and training
- recommends content and methods of training
- provides sources of technical information
- gives ideas to define and clarify procedures and product specifications

- informs on details of working out objectives
- gives advice
- explains content of programs
- assists in working out of plans
- guides implementation of plans
- meets with, listens, discusses and answers questions to resolve problems and promote cooperation
- makes suggestions to reduce resistance and sharpen understanding of program goals
- recommends alternative courses of action

Persuading

- describes and explains advantages and benefits of a program
- converses with clients
- influences in favor of a service, product, or point of view
- demonstrates the advantages of programs, procedures, products, ideas, and services
- speaks and converses with individuals, groups, and organizations
- coaxes individuals to elaborate on thoughts and feelings
- gives instruction, advice, and personal assistance

Entertaining

- tells stories and anecdotes
- selects and narrates jokes
- plays games
- gives support and assurances
- expresses sympathy
- sings songs
- acts in dramatic roles
- acts out a mime part

Appendix C.
Relationships Among Learning Sites, Learning Activities, And Learning Outcomes

(The following are actual cases, some individual and some composite, selected from experiential learning programs at several postsecondary institutions. They are numbered for easy reference.)

	Sites	Activities	Potential Interpersonal Skills Learning Outcomes
#1	Attorney's office	interviewing potential clients in person and by telephone	Interviewing
#2	State legislator's office	attending hearings, responding to inquiries by telephone or in person, troubleshooting on a variety of problems	Interviewing Persuading Listening Compiling Paraphrasing
#3	Political campaign	acting as an "advance man" to make preparations in various communities for a candidate's visits	Negotiating Persuading Mediating Compromising
#4	Special interest campaign (supporting a foreign aid proposal)	planning meetings, arranging publicity, organizing a staff, raising money	Persuading Mediating Negotiating Leading Directing
#5	Museum	leading tours	Explaining Paraphrasing Entertaining
#6	Museum	handling relations with high schools, including development of special education programs	Negotiating Instructing Supervising Administering
#7	Church	assisting in planning and implementing a reorganization	Canvassing Observing Evaluating Interviewing Persuading

Sites		Activities	Potential Interpersonal Skills Learning Outcomes
#8	Volunteer in a therapeutic community (halfway house, board and care home, etc.)	developing and administering recreational programs, vocational counseling, organizing and conducting group meetings for various purposes, fund raising, public relations	Counseling Leading Administering Entertaining Mediating Empathizing Listening Supervising
#9	Volunteer coordinator in rehabilitation center	recruiting, training, assigning and supervising volunteers in various jobs	Leading Managing Supervising Negotiating Evaluating Instructing Interviewing
#10	Office of a money management counselor	as an apprentice, handling initial contacts with potential clients, screening in preparation for interviews with the counselor	Interviewing
#11	Advertising agency	assisting in all aspects of production of commercials for television and radio, dealing with clients, helping to hire camera crews, dealing with laboratories and supplies	Evaluating Interviewing Negotiating Assisting Persuading Listening Observing
#12	Television station	assisting news staff by answering phone calls, visiting sites with reporters, gathering information	Interviewing Observing Listening Informing
#13	Volunteer aide in prison	arranging entertainment for inmates, assisting with personal problems of inmates by helping to write letters, make phone calls, etc.	Entertaining Negotiating Counseling Instructing Persuading
#14	Summer camp	counseling and disciplining campers, acting as "dorm parent" and group leader	Mediating Leading Persuading Counseling Instructing

	Sites	Activities	Potential Interpersonal Skills Learning Outcomes
#15	Orientation program on university campus	setting up and managing an office, handling telephone inquiries, developing a film presentation and planning and administering an information program for new students	Supervising Recruiting Persuading Negotiating Leading Counseling Training
#16	Elementary and secondary schools	assisting teachers, counselors, and administrators	Teaching Leading Counseling Supervising Negotiating Mediating Entertaining
#17	Motion picture studio	assisting director of a weekly television series in all aspects of his work from concept to product	Counseling Observing Interviewing Explaining
#18	Scenic design studio	as an apprentice to a scenic designer, assisting in interviewing clients	Interviewing
#19	Alternative school (elementary)	tutoring reading	Instructing Negotiating Counseling
#20	Radio station "Hot Line"	organizing and administering a "Call for Action" program, recruiting and training volunteers, chairing the administrative committee	Instructing Training Managing Supervising Leading
#21	Suicide prevention	answers crisis telephone, talking to potential suicides, assisting in administration of program, counseling new volunteers	Counseling Interviewing Listening Training
#22	Public high school	student coordinator for liaison between social science faculty member and students, assisting in evaluation of students' work, assisting in administrative duties of faculty member	Listening Paraphrasing Instructing Counseling

	Sites	Activities	Potential Interpersonal Skills Learning Outcomes
#23	League of Women Voters	chairing a committee preparing portfolios of information, lobbying, training researchers and group leaders	Managing Persuading Consulting Instructing
#24	Small business	owning, managing an appliance sales and repair business with 4 employees	Managing Instructing Supervising
#25	Member, State Zoo Board	chairing meetings, conducting research, hiring architect and zoo director to construct and establish zoological garden	Managing Negotiating Consulting Interviewing Persuading

Appendix D.

Exercise In Group Problem-Solving Interaction For The Development And Assessment Of Trainer And Trainee Group Process Skills

CONTENTS

I. Leaderless Group Discussion—General Information p. 124
II. Task Description p. 125
III. Procedures p. 125
IV. Description of Group Process Skills p. 126
V. Rating Form p. 129
VI. Instructions for Use of Rating Form p. 130

I. A LEADERLESS GROUP DISCUSSION

Task:

To discuss, achieve group consensus, and establish priorities among a set of guidelines for sponsored experiential learning programs.

Group Size:

Six participants and any number of observers, up to a maximum of about 35.

Time Required:

60 to 75 minutes should be allowed to achieve the optimal value from the interaction exercise. Additional time may be allotted for analyzing and discussing the results of the ratings.

Physical Setting:

Participants should sit around a rectangular conference table or in a circle. If the audience is large, arrange the tables at slight (35 degrees) angles to each other and facing the audience.

Materials:

A brief description of the task to be undertaken by the group.

Tables and chairs for six interactants, and enough chairs for the audience.

Name signs for the six interactants.

Enough copies of the group-process skills rating form to insure that each group participant will be rated at least once by at least one group observer.

Enough copies of all other materials to distribute to observers concerned with the particular local objectives.

II. TASK DESCRIPTION

You are a member of an educational committee charged with the task of discussing, arriving at some degree of group consensus, and establishing priorities for the set of draft guidelines for planning and implementing a sponsored experiential learning program. The committee will consist of six members, and there will be no designated group leader or chairperson. Items may be added to or deleted from the guidelines with the consensus of a majority of the group members. How consensus is arrived at will be a function of the overall pattern of group interaction. The group should discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each item and rank all the items according to their order of importance in an experiential learning program of high quality. It is important that all items be discussed and ranked.

Draft Guidelines:

Work supervisors in the community agencies where our students are interning should be informed about what constitutes adequate evidence of learning on knowing, applying, and evaluating levels of competence.

The student should be instructed in the type of documentary evidence that will substantiate a claim to competence in a particular area and level of performance.

There should be a formal contract or an established set of procedural guidelines delineating the relationship between the institution and the field experience agency.

There should be contingency arrangements in case the agency, the student, or the institution cannot meet a particular responsibility.

All students should be required to complete a preparatory course during the term before going into the field.

The learning outcomes sought in the field experience should be stated in behaviorally specific and objective terms.

The agency should be provided with a set of guidelines detailing the specific learning objectives of the individual student.

There should be an established schedule of on-site visits by the faculty instructor.

III. PROCEDURES

The task description handout is distributed to everyone present. Depending on the specific purposes for which the exercise is being used, the participants may be provided all of the materials in advance of the meeting.

Copies of the Group Process Skills Rating Form, the Procedures for using it, and the Description of Group Process Skills Functions should be distributed to all the officially designated group observers.

The group participants read the task description and then interact for approximately 60 minutes.

When priorities have been established for all the items in the guidelines or when the time limit elapses, whichever comes first, the facilitator should conclude the group interaction.

The Group Process Skills Rating Forms can be totaled, and the results used as the basis for further analysis and discussion.

IV. DESCRIPTION OF GROUP PROCESS SKILLS

For a group to operate effectively there are two main categories of group leadership/membership functions: (1) those required to meet needs on the level of Task Achievement, and (2) those required to meet needs on the level of Group *Maintenance.*

Category I.

Task Achievement Functions: These group leadership/membership functions are needed to facilitate and coordinate group effort in the selection and definition of a common problem or task, as well as in the implementation or solution of that task. When any of these roles are omitted, the effectiveness of the group declines.

Initiating suggestions: Proposing solutions; suggesting new ideas, new definitions of the problem, new attacks on the problem, or new organization of material; offering direction but with the implication that the person receiving the direction is autonomous and can accept or reject the direction: "How about if we . . .?" 'Could we do it this way . . .?" "Here's a plan."

Seeking information: Asking for clarification of suggestions; requesting additional information or facts: "How will we . . .?" "Does anyone know about . . . ?"

Seeking opinion: Looking for an expression of conviction about something from the members; seeking clarification of values, suggestions, or ideas: "What do you think . . .?" "How important is . . .?"

Giving information: Offering facts or generalizations; relating one's own experience to the group problem to illustrate points; clarifying, giving examples, or developing meaning; trying to envision how a proposal might work out if adopted; confirming an idea: "Let me explain . . ." "I've heard . . ."

Giving opinion: Stating an opinion or belief concerning a suggestion or one of several suggestions, particularly concerning its value rather than its factual basis; a broad category, including expressions, wishes, evaluations, personal analyses, and desires: "I think . . ." "I really believe . . ."

Summarizing, coordinating: Pulling together related ideas, suggestions, or feelings; restating suggestions after the group has discussed them; showing relationships among various ideas or suggestions, trying to draw together activities of various subgroups or members: "We agree that . . ." "Are we saying . . .?"

Category II.

Maintenance & Facilitation Functions: In this category are those functions that are required to strengthen and maintain the life of the group and its activities. They are necessary in order to alter or sustain the way in which members of the group work together to develop loyalty to one another and to the group as a whole.

Encouraging, showing solidarity: Being friendly, warm, and responsive to others; praising others and their ideas; agreeing with and accepting the contributions of others; tending to raise some other person's status; offer help, or approval: "Good idea." "We're working well."

Tension relieving: Tending to divert attention from tension-producing areas in the discussion or interchange; joking, laughing, smiling; putting a tense situation into a wider context: (puns, humor, sarcasm).

Gatekeeping: Trying to make it possible for another member to make a contribution to the group, or suggesting limited talking time for everyone so that all will have a chance to be heard: "Were you going to say something?" "We haven't heard from you . . ."

Standard setting: Expressing standards for the group to use in choosing its decisions; reminding the group to avoid decisions that conflict with group standards: "I thought we had decided to . . ."

Following, agreeing: Going along with the decisions of the group; thoughtfully accepting the ideas of others; serving as the audience during group discussion and decision-making; showing understanding, concurring, complying: "Fine." "I agree." "I'll go along . . ."

Mediating: Harmonizing, conciliating differences in points of view; making compromise solutions: "It seems like Jim is saying . . . and Jane is saying . . . ."

Expressing, reflecting feelings: Stating or recognizing and accepting one's own feelings and feelings expressed by members of the group either verbally or nonverbally; mirroring or succinctly restating what has been said with special alertness to feelings expressed, thus, freeing a member of the group for further self-understanding, insight, and participation: "We're getting pretty upset." "You look really pleased, Mary." "I was anxious when we talked about . . . ."

Category III.

Nonfunctional Behavior: Often in groups, one can observe behavior that *does not* seem to fit either of the above mentioned categories. This is likely to be *SELF-CENTERED* behavior, sometimes referred to as "*nonfunctional*" roles. This is behavior that *does not contribute to group but only satisfies personal needs.* The following nonfunctional roles are to be avoided in one's own behavior and noted as significantly meaningful in the behavior of other group members.

Blocking, criticizing: Interfering with the progess of the group by going off on a tangent, citing personal experiences unrelated to the problem, arguing too much on a point, rejecting ideas without consideration; vying with others to produce the best idea, talk the most, play the most roles, gain favor with the leader, defend one's own status; working for status by criticizing or blaming others, showing hostility against the group or some individual, deflating the ego or status of others: "That would never work." "There goes my idea." "I don't like that at all."

Seeking recognition, dominating: Attempting to call attention to one's self by loud excessive talking, extreme ideas, unusual behavior; introducing or supporting suggestions related to one's own pet concerns or philosophies; lobbying: (loud tones, interruptions, defensiveness).

Withdrawing, avoiding: Showing disagreement; rejecting or withholding cooperation; acting indifferent or passive; resorting to excessive formality, daydreaming, doodling, whispering to others, wandering from the subject: (usually non-verbal refusal).

This list and the rating scale, which follows, were adapted from W.F. Hill, *Learning Through Discussion,* and R.F. Bales, *Personality and Interpersonal Behavior,* and from the work of John Berge and Jan Hagberg at Metropolitan State University (Minneapolis-St. Paul).

V. RATING FORM

FUNCTIONS **PARTICIPANTS**

Category I.

GROUP TASK ACHIEVEMENT FUNCTIONS (LEADERSHIP)	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1. Initiating suggestions							
2. Seeking information							
3. Seeking opinion							
4. Giving information							
5. Giving opinion							
6. Summarizing, coordinating							
7. Significant non-verbal behavior							
Subtotal							

Category II.

GROUP MAINTENANCE & FACILITATING FUNCTIONS - (MEMBERSHIP)	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1. Encouraging, showing solidarity							
2. Tension relieving							
3. Gate keeping							
4. Standard setting							
5. Following, agreeing							
6. Mediating							
7. Expressing, reflecting feelings							
8. Significant non-verbal behavior							
Subtotal							

Category III.

NONFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIORS	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1. Blocking, criticizing							
2. Seeking recognition, dominating							
3. Withdrawing, avoiding							
4. Significant non-verbal behaviors							
Subtotal							
TOTAL							

VI. INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE OF RATING FORM

1. Observers should read and familiarize themselves with the behavioral definitions of the three major categories of group functions identified in the *Description of Group Process Skills.*
2. Each observer may choose one group participant (participants are identified by letters A, B, C, etc.) to observe for the duration of the interaction. Or, each observer may choose to observe and rate all the group participants for the duration of the interaction.
3. Each time a group participant performs a behavior identified under any one of the three major categories of group functions, place a check mark (✓ or 1) in the appropriate box. Significant nonverbal behaviors which appear to fit easily into one of the three categories may also be rated. Add the subtotal scores (counting one for each check mark) for each of the three major categories and obtain a total score for each participant.
4. The rating results from the Group Process Skills Rating Form might serve as a tool for diagnosing trainer and trainee Group Process Skills strengths and weaknesses—i.e., more of a leader/task achiever than a builder of group solidarity and maintenance, or more of a group maintainer than a group leader, or exhibits excessive nonfunctional, self-centered behavior.

Appendix E.
Course Outline* C.E.D. 184 and 199

C.E.D. 184/199 is a two course sequence for students interested in designing and implementing their own field study projects. The first quarter, Fall, students will acquire an insight into the techniques of experiential education through readings, individual research, and weekly seminars. At the same time, each student will develop a learning proposal involving the plan for a field-study project. The project will be implemented in the second quarter, in C.E.D. 199. C.E.D. 184 and 199 are open to upper division students of all majors and because the courses are not affiliated with a particular department, they are adaptable to projects in nearly every discipline. C.E.D. 184 credit is set at four units. Credit for C.E.D. 199 can vary from four to eight units, depending on the nature of the field-study project involved.

Objectives: Each student will:

(1) be able to comprehend the implications of a particular learning problem in terms of its relationship to at least two academic disciplines.

(2) develop a knowledge of how theory and practice are both alike and different in the selected area of study.

(3) be able to identify personal learning advantages from the experiential learning activity.

(4) be able to define his/her own objectives for a field experience project in an individualized learning proposal in behavioral terms.

(5) be capable of developing a comprehensive bibliography as a part of the learning proposal.

(6) be able to identify a specific set of processes required to attain a set of specified objectives in a field experience.

(7) understand the project well enough to be able to explain it to his/her peers in terms they will understand.

(8) successfully complete the field project, under the supervision of the faculty instructors and field supervisor.

Requirements: C.E.D. 184:

(1) Recommended Readings: *Independent Study*-Dressel and Thompson; *Guide to Participation*—Bollens and Marshall; *When I was Your Age-STOP*—Hallberg and Thomas; *Essays on Knowing*—Bruner; "The Student Bread Game"—Scalberg.

Required Reading: *Universal Traveler*—Koberg and Bagnal

Suggested readings will be integrated with lectures and discussions to familiarize the student with theories of experiential education and the mechanics of preparing a learning proposal.

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(2) Individual bibliography: each student will develop a comprehensive bibliography as the foundation for the proposed field-study.

(3) Learning proposal: each student will complete an individualized learning proposal, approved by a faculty mentor, a field supervisor, and the course instructor *by the eighth week of the course.*

(4) Examinations and reports: each student will complete a mid-term and final examination in experiential education; the exams are designed to give each student an opportunity to apply theory to hypothetical problems in experiential education. The course will conclude with a final oral report on the field-study project.

Requirements: C.E.D.199:

(1) Each student will fulfill the requirements of a learning proposal designed around a field experience. The work will occur in field site locations under the guidance of UCLA faculty advisors and under the supervision of field representatives engaged in the work or organization befitting the particular experience. Their instructors will provide liaison and continual monitoring of their experience.

(2) Each student will complete the prerequisite evaluation requirements.

(3) Each student will prepare a report of how well the following skills were developed during the experience: information source development, values clarification, cultural understanding, interpersonal communication, commitment to persons and relationships, decision-making, written communication, and problem solving.

(4) Each student will be able to communicate what he/she learned from the total experience; what changes, if any, the experience brought about in values, attitudes, interests, goals, beliefs, and convictions.

Appendix F.
Procedures And Guidelines For Experiential Instruction By Individual Study*

I. Procedures

Step 1. Both the student and the instructor should study the guidelines in Section II below.

Step 2. The student should make an appointment to confer with the instructor about any changes or additions to the guidelines which may be appropriate to the particular proposal.

Step 3. The student should draft a proposal, submit it and make an appointment to discuss it with the instructor.

Step 4. When there is agreement on a final draft, the student should type it in quintuplicate for signature by the student and the instructor. Each retains a copy.

Step 5. Two copies of the signed agreement should be forwarded with the attached "Petition for Course by Individual Study" (one for the department chairperson, one for the Registrar). One copy of the agreement should be forwarded to the student's supervisor in the experiential learning situation.

II. Guidelines.

1. *Statement of Objectives.* The student should prepare, and then develop with the instructor, a statement of the specific learning outcomes which he/she wishes to achieve through the projected experience including: informational skills (acquiring, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating data), interpersonal skills (managing, supervising, interviewing, counseling, consulting, etc.)

2. *Description of Planned Experience.* The student (along with the work or community service supervisor, if any) should describe in detail the projected experience which he/she proposes to utilize as a learning base for the course. The description should include: type of activity; student's role in the activity; number of hours to be spent engaged in the activity; amount and type of supervision; and any other information pertinent to the learning potential of the experience.

3. *Educational Plan.* The student should prepare, and then develop with the instructor, an Educational Plan for maximizing the learning outcomes sought from the experience. Included in the Plan should be some or all of the following as appropriate:

a. reading. (Including preparatory study before the experience begins and/or supportive study during the experiential education period, and/or integrative study after the experience is completed.)

b. writing. (Including, perhaps, regular reports to the instructor and/or a final evaluation by the student).

c. consultation or seminar between student and instructor. (This should be on at least a weekly basis if possible.)

d. on site supervision/evaluation/observation. Some provision should be made for the instructor to observe the student on the experiential site if possible.

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4. *Evaluation*. The instructor should prepare and develop with the student means by which the instructor can assess the results of the experience, determining whether the objectives are met, and evaluate the outcome for grading and crediting purposes. This may include written and/or oral examination, oral and/or written reports by the student and the supervisor, and direct observation by the instructor.

SAN FRANCISCO STATE UNIVERSITY

PETITION FOR COURSE BY INDIVIDUAL STUDY

(699 or 899)

See instructions on reverse side before completing petition

1. NAME IN FULL: STUDENT # _ _ _/_ _/_ _ _ _

LAST FIRST MIDDLE

2. In accordance with University regulations as stated in the General Bulletin and on the reverse side of this form, I petition to take the following course by individual study:

Signature Date

3. Department	Course No.	Course Title	Semester Units

4. SUMMARY OF COURSE OBJECTIVES, METHODS, AND EVALUATION PROCEDURES (See Instructions)

4A – COURSE OBJECTIVES

4B – METHODS

4C – EVALUATION PROCEDURES

5. Review and Approval by:

ADVISER'S Signature __/__/__ Date INSTRUCTOR'S Signature __/__/__ Date DEPT. CHAIR __/__ Date

Distribution (by Dept. Chair):
White Copy – Registrar • Blue Copy – Department • Green Copy – Instructor • Pink Copy – Dean • Goldenrod Copy – Student

PROCEDURES

First, read the instructions below, all the way through. The item numbers refer to the numbered questions on the front of the form.

Second, make appointments to discuss your proposal with your advisor and your 699 or 899 instructor.

Third, prepare a rough draft of the material required for Item 4 and make another appointment with your instructor.

Fourth, after you have reached agreement with your advisor and instructor, complete the petition, get your advisor's signature, and deliver the petition to your instructor who will sign and forward it to the Department Chair for review and approval.

Fifth, if you have not already done so by CAR you must register for the course using the procedures for adding a course (see Class Schedule).

INSTRUCTIONS

Items 1-3. Students who have demonstrated the ability to work independently and have cumulative grade point average of 3.0 (undergraduates) or 3.5 (graduates) may enroll for courses by independent study if they have the approval of their advisor, an instructor for the course, and the department chair.

Credit is given by independent study only for courses not included in the University's curriculum as published in the Bulletin or Class Schedule.

Item 4. THIS IS THE MOST IMPORTANT PART OF THE PETITION. A full statement of your objectives in taking a course by independent study, the methods you will use to achieve these objectives, and a proposal for evaluation must be developed in consultation with the instructor and approved before the petition is signed.

A **summary** of this statement must be included on the petition as item 4 including:

4A OBJECTIVES. What skills, knowledge, competency or other learning objectives have been agreed upon by the student and the instructor.

4B METHODS. How are these objectives to be achieved? (e.g., reading, interviewing, consultation with instructor, etc.) How often will the student meet with the instructor?

4C EVALUATION. How will the student's learning be evaluated by the instructor for grading purposes? (e.g., written work, oral examinations, other?)

THE EVERGREEN STATE COLLEGE
OFFICE OF COOPERATIVE EDUCATION
Olympia, Washington 98505
Ken Donohue, Director

Appendix G.
Sample Agreement Form*

See Instructions on Reverse Side
Please Type or Print

Social Security No.	Date:
Student name:	Telephone:
Faculty Sponsor:	Telephone:
Academic Program (or short title of Contract):	
Intern employer:	
Address:	Zip code:
Field Supervisor:	Telephone:

Name and/or description of internship position

Internship learning objectives ______________________________

Specific on-the-job duties and responsibilities of intern ______________________________

Hours per week:	Rate of pay (if any):
Other reimbursement (Travel, meals, lodging, etc.):	
Starting date:	Completion date:

Additional academic supplement, if any, provided by sponsor: ______________________________

Mode of study: Coordinated Studies ______ Group Contract ______ Individual Contract ______ (See instructions on reverse side)	Units of credit to be awarded by sponsor for successful completion of entire Learning Contract or Coordinated Studies activity: ______ If applicable, units of credit to be awarded for each of the following:	
	On-the-job component:	Academic supplement:

IMPORTANT: PLEASE NOTE RESPONSIBILITIES ON REVERSE SIDE BEFORE SIGNING THIS AGREEMENT.

Special considerations and/or waivers under this agreement: ______________________________

TESC is committed to an Affirmative Action program and intends to comply with the letter and spirit of federal, state and local equal employment statutes and regulations.

This agreement may be terminated by the intern or the employer organization upon receipt of two weeks written notice by either party.

Student Signature ______________________ Date __________

Faculty Signature ______________________ Date __________

Field Supervisor ______________________ Date __________

Co-op Ed. Coordinator ______________________ Date __________

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COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

Instructions:

1. Clear any proposed internship with the Office of Cooperative Education **before** you negotiate the Internship Agreement. This will help to avoid confusion arising from a multiplicity of contracts. If you need assistance the office will assist you to locate, negotiate and/or arrange the details of your internship.
2. Complete the Internship Agreement whether you are enrolled in Coordinated Studies or Contracted Studies.
3. Read the Internship Agreement carefully, paying particular attention to the sections on "responsibilities."
4. Discuss the proposed internship with your faculty sponsor **before** completing the information sections.
5. Be sure you have a clear understanding with your field supervisor concerning the specific details of your job assignment. If possible, your faculty sponsor should confer with your field supervisor before you complete the Internship Agreement.
6. If the field supervisor has agreed to provide additional training or teaching support beyond normal supervision of the job component, indicate the extent and nature of this support under "Special Considerations."
7. Fill out the information sections carefully, accurately and completely. If you need help, your Co-op Coordinator will be available to assist you.
8. If you are enrolled in Contracted Studies, be sure that you write a separate Learning Contract in addition to the Internship Agreement. You may reference the Learning Contract in those sections of the Internship Agreement which call for duplicate information. If you do so, be sure to attach copies of the Learning Contract to your Internship Agreement.
9. Secure all signatures to the agreement, except the Co-op Education Coordinator's, and return all four copies to the Co-op office. If you are enrolled in contracts be sure your field supervisor has signed the Learning Contract as a sub-contractor. Bring the Learning Contract to Co-op for review before submitting it to the registrar's office.

   If you need assistance at any point or if you wish further information about the resources available to you through the Co-op Office, call 866-6391 or drop in at the Co-op Office.

Responsibilities under this Agreement:

The parties to this agreement assume the following responsibilities:

1. The student intern agrees to:
   - a. Perform, to the best of his or her ability and to the satisfaction of the field supervisor, those tasks assigned by the field supervisor and related to the job component of the internship; perform, to the best of his or her ability, any tasks assigned by the faculty sponsor and related to the academic supplement, if any.
   - b. Adhere to all rules, regulations, and normal requirements of the employing organization, including regular and punctual reporting to the place of work.
   - c. Meet regularly with the faculty sponsor, insofar as possible, for guidance, counseling, and advisement.
   - d. Notify the Office of Cooperative Education and the faculty sponsor of any changes in this agreement.
2. The faculty sponsor agrees to:
   - a. Meet with the intern regularly, insofar as proximity and schedules allow, to provide teaching and guidance support. The frequency of these meetings should be prearranged with the student and the field supervisor at the outset of the internship.
   - b. Maintain contact with the student's field supervisor for the purposes of evaluating the student's performance during the internship.
3. The field supervisor agrees to:
   - a. Provide normal, routine on-the-job supervision in the performance of tasks described in this agreement.
   - b. Provide the sponsor with periodic reports on the student's progress in the internship.
   - c. Provide a final written evaluation of the student's work according to the schedule agreed upon at the outset of the internship.
4. The Office of Cooperative Education agrees to:
   - a. Provide administrative support and coordination for the internship.
   - b. Assist student, faculty sponsor, and field supervisor in resolving any problems or difficulties which may arise.
   - c. Maintain communication and liaison between the College and the employing organization.